

THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts.

No. 1350.

LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1853.

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BOARD OF TRADE.—DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE AND ART.

METROPOLITAN SCHOOL OF SCIENCE APPLIED TO MINING AND THE ARTS.

DIRECTOR.—SIR HENRY T. DE LA BECHE, C.B. F.R.S.

The following Course of Lectures and Practical Demonstrations will be given next Session, which will commence on the 1st of October, with an Introductory Lecture by Prof. E. Forbes.

1. CHEMISTRY, with special reference to the Arts.—A. W. Hofmann, Ph.D. F.R.S.
2. NATURAL HISTORY, applied to Geology and the Arts.—R. Forbes, F.R.S.
3. PHYSICAL SCIENCE, with its Special Applications.—R. Hunt.
4. APPLIED MECHANICS.—R. Willis, M.A. F.R.S.
5. METALLURGY.—J. Percy, M.D. F.R.S.
6. GEOLOGY, with its Practical Applications.—A. C. Ramsay, F.R.S.
7. MINING.—W. W. Smyth, M.A.

Instruction in Mechanical Drawing is also given.

THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF CHEMISTRY, now the Chemical Laboratory of this School, receives Pupils at a fee of 10s. for the Term of 14 weeks. The same fee is charged in the Metallurgical Laboratory.

The fee for Matriculated Students (exclusive of the Laboratory) is one payment of 20s. for two years, or two annual payments of 10s. This fee includes Field Instruction. Tickets to separate Courses of Lectures are issued at 3s. and 4s. Officers in the Queen's or East India Company's service, Acting Mining Agents and Managers, may obtain them at half the usual charge.

H.R.H. the Prince of Wales has granted Two Exhibitions to the School, and others have also been established. For information apply to Mr. T. KERR, Registrar, at the School, Jermyn-street, London.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—NEW

Students will be admitted into the following Departments on WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1853:—

THE THEOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT, which provides a Course of Instruction, essentially practical in its nature, for those who propose to offer themselves as Candidates for Holy Orders. The two Archbishops and twenty-four of the Bishops have consented to admit as Candidates for Holy Orders those who shall produce a Certificate of having passed a satisfactory Examination after two years' study at King's College.

THE DEPARTMENT OF GENERAL LITERATURE AND SCIENCE, including Greek and Latin, Mathematics, English Literature and History, French and German, and adapted for those Students who propose to proceed to the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge.

THE DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED SCIENCES, which provides a Course of Instruction for those who are likely to be engaged in Civil Engineering, Surveying, Architecture, and the higher branches of Manufacturing Art. Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Surveying, Geometrical Drawing, Mineralogy and Geology, Manufacturing Art and Machinery, are taught in this Department.

THE MILITARY DEPARTMENT, intended for the training of those who expect Commissions in the Army, or direct appointments in the Hon. East India Company's service, and including Latin and Ancient History, Mathematics, English History and Geography, French and German, Drawing and Fortification.

THE SCHOOL will RE-OPEN on TUESDAY, September 20, when new PUPILS will be ADMITTED.

The School is now open to the following Departments:—

1. The Division of Classics, Mathematics, and General Literature, the Studies in which are directed to prepare Pupils for the Universities, for the Theological, General Literature, and Medical Departments of King's College, and for the Learned Professions.
2. The Division of Modern Instruction, including Pupils intended for general Mercantile Pursuits; for the Classes of Architecture, Engineering, and Surveying; for the Hon. East India Company's Military Academies; for the Royal Navy and the Commercial Marine.

Further particulars respecting any one of these Departments may be obtained from the King's College Calendar to be obtained at the College, price 3s. 6d., or sent by post 3s.; or by application to J. W. CUNNINGHAM, Esq., Secretary, King's College, London. August, 1853. J. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—MEDICAL

DEPARTMENT.—THE WINTER SESSION, 1853-54, will COMMENCE on MONDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1853, on which all Students are expected to attend the Introductory Lecture, by DR. GUY, at 2 o'clock.

The following COURSES OF LECTURES will be given:—

Anatomy.—Professor Richard Partridge, F.R.S.
Physiology and General Medical Anatomy.—Professors W. Bowman, F.R.S. and Lionel S. Beale, M.B.
Chemistry.—Professor W. A. Miller, M.D. F.R.S.
Principles and Practice of Medicine.—Professor George Budd, F.R.S.
Principles and Practice of Surgery.—Prof. William Ferguson, F.R.S.

KING'S COLLEGE HOSPITAL.

The Hospital is visited daily.

Clinical Lectures are given every week, both by the Physicians and the Surgeons.

The Physicians' Assistants and Clinical Clerks, the House Surgeons and Dressers, are selected by examination from the Students of the Hospital.

SCHOLARSHIPS.—New Students entering for this Session will have the privilege exclusively of contending, in October next, for three Warneford Scholarships of 25s. per annum, for three years. The examination takes place on the 30th of September.

One Scholarship of 40s. tenable for three years; one of 30s. and three of 20s. each, tenable for two years, will be filled up in April next, the subjects of the examination being exclusively Medical.

Full particulars upon every subject may be obtained from Dr. GUY, Dean of the Department; or upon application to J. W. CUNNINGHAM, Esq., Secretary.

AUG. 1, 1853. R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON, ST. PAUL'S

SCHOOL, &c.—PREPARATORY EDUCATION.—A widow Lady, residing in a delightful situation West of London, prepares a FEW YOUNG GENTLEMEN, under 16 years of age, for the above or similar Institutions. The locality is particularly suitable for those who are in delicate health or from India.—For terms, references, &c. apply to C. C. 13, Notland-square, Notting-hill, near London.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

FACULTY OF ARTS and L.A.—Session 1853-54.—The SESSION will COMMENCE on THURSDAY, October 13, when Professor NEWMAN will deliver an INTRODUCTORY LECTURE, at Three o'clock precisely. Subject, *Vindicta Punice*.

CLASSES.

Latin.—Professor Newman.
Greek.—Professor Malden, A.M.
Sanskrit.—Professor Goldastück.
Hebrew.—Teacher, the Rev. D. W. Marks.
English Language and Literature.—Professor Masson, A.M.
French Language and Literature.—Professor Merlet.
Italian Language and Literature.—Professor Gallenga.
German Language and Literature.—Professor Heinmann, Ph.D.
Comparative Grammar.—Professor Key, A.M.
Mathematics.—Professor De Morgan.
Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.—Professor Potter, A.M.
Chemistry.—Professor Graham.
Practical Chemistry.—Professor Williamson, Ph.D.
Civil Engineering.—Professor Harman Lewis, A.M.
Architecture.—Professor Donaldson, M.B.A.
Mechanical Principles of Engineering.—Professor Eaton Hodgkinson.

Machinery (vacant).
Drawing Teacher.—Mr. Moore.
Geology and Mineralogy.—Professor Morris, F.G.S.
Botany.—Professor Lindley, Ph.D. W. Marks.
Zoology (Recent and Fossil).—Professor Grant, M.D.
Philosophy of Mind and Logic.—Professor the Rev. J. Hoppus, Ph.D.

Ancient and Modern History.—Professor Cressy, A.M.
Political Economy.—Lecturer, Jacob Waley, M.A.
Law.—Professor Russell, LL.B.

Junior Lecturer.—Professor Potter, M.A. LL.D.
Schoolmasters' Classes.—Professors Newman, Malden, De Morgan, and Potter.

RESIDENCE OF STUDENTS.—Several of the Professors receive Students to reside with them and the Office of the College then is kept a register of parties who receive boarders into their families. The register will afford information as to terms and other particulars.

A SCHOLARSHIPS.—After the Examinations for the Scholarships in October next, the existing arrangements respecting the number and value of the Andrews Scholarships will be re-considered by the Council.

GOLDMID PRIZES FOR HEHEW.—Two, 10s. and 10s. respectively.
MERCHISON PRIZES, for GEOLOGY and MINERALOGY, offered by the Bank of Glasgow.—Two, 10s. and 10s. respectively.

WILLIAMSON PRIZE, offered by Alexander Williamson, Esq. 50s. for the most successful experimental research undertaken in the Birkbeck Laboratory. A similar Prize will probably be offered in 1855.

Prospectuses and further particulars may be obtained at the Office of the College.

EDWARD POTTER, A.M., Dean of the Faculty.
CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.

August, 1853.

The Session of the Faculty of Medicine will commence on Monday, the 3rd of October.

The Junior School will open on Friday, the 23rd of September.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

JUNIOR SCHOOL, under the Government of the Council, of the College.

Head Master.—THOMAS HEWITT KEY, A.M.

The School WILL OPEN on TUESDAY, the 27th of September, for New Pupils. All the Boys must appear in their Class without fail on Friday, the 30th, at a quarter past Nine o'clock.

The Session is divided into three Terms; viz., from the 23rd of September to Christmas, from Christmas to Easter, and from Easter to the 24th of August.

The Yearly Payment for each Pupil is 18s. of which 6s. are paid in advance in each Term. The Hours of Attendance are from a quarter past Nine to three quarters past Three o'clock. The Afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday are devoted exclusively to Drawing.

The Subjects taught are, Reading, Writing, the English, Latin, Greek, French, and German Languages, Ancient and English History, Geography, both Physical and Political, Arithmetic, and Book-keeping, the Elements of Mathematics, of Natural Philosophy, and of Chemistry and Drawing.

Any Pupil may omit Greek, or Greek and Latin, and devote his whole attention to the other branches of Education. There is a General Examination of the Pupils at the end of the Session, and the Prizes are then given.

At the end of each of the first two Terms there are Short Examinations, which are taken into account in the General Examination. No absence by a Boy from any one of the Examinations of his Classes is permitted, except for reasons submitted to, and approved by, the Head Master.

The Discipline of the School is maintained without corporal punishment.

A Monthly Report of the conduct of each Pupil is sent to his Parent or Guardian.

Further particulars may be obtained at the Office of the College.

CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.

The College Lectures in the Classes of the Faculty of Medicine will commence on Monday, the 3rd of October; those of the Faculty of Arts on Thursday, the 13th of October.

August 31, 1853.

UNIVERSITY HALL, GORDON SQUARE,

London.—THIS INSTITUTION will RE-OPEN in October next, under the superintendence of the Principal, DR. WILLIAM B. CANNISTER, F.R.S. &c., for the reception of Students at the University College during the Medical Session. Information respecting the arrangements of the Hall, Terms of Residence, &c. may be obtained by application to the Principal at the Hall.

September 6, 1853.

CRYSTAL PALACE, SYDENHAM.—Efforts

are being made to collect for the Pavement of the Pompeian House specimens of ROMAN MOSAIC WORK, fine fragments of which are often found in this Country in situations where it is impossible to provide for their safety and proper Exhibition. Any Nobleman or Gentleman who may be in possession of any such remains in sufficiently perfect condition to admit of removal, and of appropriate dimensions and design, would confer a public benefit by placing the same at the disposal of the Institution. Any communication upon this subject will be gladly received by

M. DIGBY WYATT.

Crystal Palace, Sydenham.

BOARD OF TRADE.—DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE AND ART.

INSTRUCTION IN ART, General and Special, as afforded at the CENTRAL SCHOOL at MARLBOROUGH HOUSE, Pall Mall, London. The School consists of

I.—A MODEL SCHOOL.

II.—SPECIAL CLASSES for TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

III.—A TRAINING SCHOOL for TEACHERS.

ART SUPERINTENDENT.—RICHARD REDGRAVE, R.A.

The AUTUMN SESSION will commence on MONDAY, the 3rd of October, 1853, with an INTRODUCTORY LECTURE by Mr. REDGRAVE.

1. The Courses of Instruction are intended to impart systematically a knowledge of the scientific principles of Art, especially in its relation to the useful purposes of life. A limited application of those principles is demonstrated with the view of preparing Students to enter upon the future practice of the Decorative Arts in Manufactures and Workshops, either as Masters, Overseers, or skilled workmen. At the same time, instruction is afforded to all who may desire to pursue these studies without reference to a preparation for any special branch of industry. Special Courses are arranged in order to train persons to become Masters of Schools of Art, and to enable Schoolmasters of Parochial and other Schools to teach Elementary Drawing as a part of general Education concurrently with Writing.
2. The Lectures and Classes for Instruction, comprehend the following subjects:—

A. GENERAL COURSE FOR MALE STUDENTS ONLY.

- A. Freeland, Model, and Elementary Principles of Architecture, Practical Geometry and Perspective, Painting in Oil, Tempera, and Water Colours, Modelling. The Classes for Drawing, Painting, and Modelling, include the Figure from the Antique and the Life; and Artistic Anatomy. Class Lectures, Teaching and Practice, daily, in the morning and evening. Fee 2s. the Session, or part of a Session. Head Master, Mr. Burchett; Assistant, Messrs. Herman, Walsh, Denby, and Wills.
- B. The General Evening Instruction is limited to advanced Drawing, Painting, and Modelling. For Male Students only. Qualified Students, formerly registered at Somerset House, may be admitted by the Head Master, at a fee of 1s. for the Session, or part of a Session. Others pay 2s. each Session.

TECHNICAL COURSES.

- C. Practical Construction, including Architecture, Building, and the various processes of Plastic Decoration, Furniture, and Metal Working. Public and Class Lectures, Teaching and Practice, morning and evening. Fee 2s. each Session. Only one Course only fee 2s. for Male Students only. Lecturer and Superintendent, Professor Semper.
- D. Mechanical and Machine Drawing. Class Lectures with evening teaching and morning practice. For Male Students only. Fee 2s. each Session. Superintendent, Mr. W. H. Ringe.
- E. Surface Decoration, as applied to Woven Fabrics of all kinds, Lace, Paper Hangings, &c. Public and Class Lectures, Teaching and Practice, at all times. Fee 2s. each Session. An afternoon class for Females only. Fee 1s. An Evening Class for Male Students only. Fee 2s. Lecturer and Superintendent, Mr. Octavius Morris.

F. Porcelain Painting, daily Teaching and Practice for Male and Female Students. Fee 2s. each Session. Superintendents, Mr. Simpson and Mr. C. Robinson.

G. Wood Carving, Public Lectures, daily Teaching and Practice for Female Students only. Fee 2s. Superintendents, Thompson and Miss Waterhouse.

H. Lithography, Chalk, Pen, and Colour. Daily Teaching and Practice for Female Students only. Fee 2s. Superintendents, Mr. Brooke and Miss Channon.

PUBLIC LECTURES.

On Natural History, by Professor R. Forbes; on Metallurgical Processes, by Dr. Percy; on the History of Ornamental Art, by Mr. Wornum, Librarian; on the Objects and Uses of the Museum, by Mr. J. C. Robinson, &c. Admission to each Lecture free.

3. The Instruction for the general Students is carried on daily, except on Saturdays. The Annual Sessions, each lasting five months, commence on 1st October, and 1st March, and end respectively on 28th February, and 31st July.

4. Students may matriculate for a period of three years upon paying 10s. in one sum on entrance, or three annual payments of 10s. They are entitled to attend all Public and Special Courses, the general and technical Courses, to receive personal instruction, and to practice in the School at all times; they have also access to the Museum and Library. At the end of the Session they may pay for Examination, and have the privilege of competing for Scholarships, varying from 10s. to 30s. a year in value.

5. Occasional Students are at liberty to attend only the particular Courses for which they enter, and have admission to the Museum, Library, and Public Lectures.

6. A CLASS FOR SCHOOLMASTERS AND PUPIL TEACHERS will meet every Tuesday and Thursday Evening, and on Saturdays. Pupil Teachers under inspection of the Council of Education pay a Fee of 10s. for the Session of five months. Schoolmasters of Parochial Schools, &c. may enter the Schoolmasters' Class, and pay a Fee of 5s. Superintendents of the Training teaching, and Elementary Instruction, Mr. Burchett; Assistant, Mr. Bowler.

7. A Register of the Students' attendances is kept, and may be consulted by Parents and Guardians.

8. THE SCHOOL FOR THE FEMALE STUDENTS passing through the General Course is 31s. 6d. per Session. Superintendent, Mrs. M'lan; Assistants, Miss Gann and Miss West.

For Prospectuses, and further information, apply at the Offices, Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London.

HENRY COLE.

LYON PLAYFAIR. } Joint Secretaries.

ROYAL NAVAL SCHOOL, NEW CROSS.

KENT.—For qualifying its Pupils for the Universities, for the Military, Naval, and East India Company's Services, and for Mercantile or other pursuits.

The primary object of this School is to educate the sons of Naval and Marine Officers, at the least possible expense, and to afford a limited number of Pupils other than the sons of Naval or Marine Officers are also eligible for admission, under the recent Act of Parliament, on advanced terms. The regulations may be obtained from the Secretary. The next Quarter will commence on the 29th of September, as there are now only a few vacancies, early application should be made.—By order of the Council,

ALFRED EMMET, Secretary.

September, 1853.

N.B.—The Seventh List of Contributions to the CHANCERY BUILDING FUND will shortly be published.

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GUYS, 1853-4.—The MEDICAL SESSION COMMENCES on the 1st of OCTOBER. The INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS will be given by HENRY OLDHAM, M.D., on SATURDAY, the 1st of October, at Two o'clock. Gentlemen desirous of becoming Students must give satisfactory testimony as to their education. They are required to pay 40s. for the first year, 40s. for the second year, and 10s. for every succeeding year of attendance; or 100s. in one payment entitles a Student to a perpetual ticket. Doctors, Clinical Clerks, Ward Clerks, Officers, Residents, and Dissectors, are selected, according to merit, from those Students who have attended a second year.

Mr. Stoecker, Apothecary to Guy's Hospital, will enter Students, and give any further information required.

August 4, 1853.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL and MEDICAL COLLEGE.—The WINTER SESSION will COMMENCE on OCTOBER 3, with an Introductory Address by Mr. STANLEY, at Seven o'clock, P.M.

LECTURES.

Medicine—Dr. Burrows.
Surgery—Mr. Lawrence.
Descriptive Anatomy—Mr. Skye.
Physiology and Morbid Anatomy—Mr. Paget.
Superintendence of Diseases—Mr. Holden and Mr. Coote.
Demonstrations of Morbid Anatomy—Dr. Kirkes.
Chemistry—Mr. Stenhouse.

SUMMER SESSION, 1854, commencing MAY 1.

Material Medical—Mr. Rossell.
Botany—Dr. Farre.
Forensic Medicine—Dr. Baly.
Midwifery, &c.—Mr. Denham.
Comparative Anatomy—Mr. McWhinnie.
Practical Chemistry—Mr. Stenhouse.
Natural Philosophy—Dr. Gibbon.

Hospital Practice.—The Hospital contains 650 Beds, and relief is afforded to about 1000 patients annually. The in-patients are visited daily, and Clinical Lectures are delivered weekly, by both the physicians and the surgeons.

Out-patients are attended daily by the assistant-physicians and assistant-surgeons.

Collegiate Establishment—Warden, Dr. Black. Students can receive Honorary Degrees, subject to the rules of the Collegiate system. Established under the direction of the Treasurer and a Committee of the Governors of the Hospital. Some of the teachers and other gentlemen connected with the Hospital also receive students with respect to the rules of the Collegiate system.

Scholarships, Prizes, &c.—At the end of the Winter Session, Examinations will be held for a Scholarship of the value of 45s. per year, and tenend for two years, and for one of 30s. for one year. The Examinations of the Classes for Prizes and Certificates of Merit will take place at the same time.

Further information may be obtained from Mr. Paget, or any of the medical or surgical officers or lecturers; or at the Anatomical Museum or Library.

PRACTICAL AND ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY.—BIRKBECK LABORATORY, University College, London.—Professor A. W. WILLIAMSON, Ph.D.—For Practical Instruction in Organic and General Chemistry, and the Principles of Chemical Research as applied more particularly to Agriculture, Medicine, and the Manufacturing Arts, the Laboratory is open daily, from the 3rd of October to the end of July, from Nine A.M. to 4 P.M., except on Saturdays, when it is closed at Two o'clock. Students occupy themselves with subjects of their own choice, under sanction of the Professor, by whom they are assisted with necessary instructions.

A Prize of 50s., offered by Alexander Williamson, Esq., for the most successful experimental research undertaken in the Birkbeck Laboratory during the year, will be given to the Student who at the Annual Course of Instruction in the Laboratory. It will be awarded in August 1854, at the end of the Session. Mr. Williamson will probably offer a similar Prize for the following year.

The Gold and Silver Medals, as rewards of merit for this Class, will be given by the Council as usual. Fees—Session, 30s. 6s.; six months, 10s. 10s.; three months, 10s. 10s.; one month, 4s. 4s.

COURSE OF GENERAL CHEMISTRY.—Prof. Graham's Lectures are daily, except Saturday, from 3rd of October to the 10th of April, at Eleven A.M. Fee, for perpetual admission, 5s.; whole term, 4s.; half term, 3s.

Prospectus, with full details, may be had at the Office of the College.

RICHARD POTTER, A.M. Dean of the Faculty of Arts.
WILLIAM SHARPE, M.D. Dean of the Faculty of Medicine.
CHARLES C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.
September 5, 1853.

ROYAL PANOPTICON OF SCIENCE and ART.—Lectures by Mr. HOLMES commence a CLASS OF PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY in the Laboratory of this Institution on Thursday, the 1st of September, for Medical Students, Gentlemen Amateurs, or Gentlemen wishing to investigate any particular branch of Chemical Science. A separate Class for Ladies, and a Juvenile Class in the morning. Also, on the same day, Mr. Holmes commenced his Course of Agricultural Chemistry, embracing simple practical methods of Analysing Soils, Manures, &c., and Instructions in the Application of Chemical Science to the general routine of Farming operations.—Applications for terms to be made to Mr. Holmes, at the Institution.

THE ROYAL EXHIBITION.—A valuable, newly-invented very small powerful Waistcoat Pocket-glass, the size of a Walnut, to discern minute objects at a distance of four to five miles, which is found to be invaluable for LACTATING, and to SOLIDIFY, GENTLEMAN, and LADIES. KEPPERS. Price 10s. sent free.—TELESCOPES. A new and most important INVENTION in TELESCOPES, possessing such extraordinary powers, that some, 31 inches, with an extra eyepiece, will show distinctly Jupiter's Moons, Saturn's Ring, and the Double Stars. They supersede every other kind, and are of all sizes for the waistcoat pocket, Shooting, Military purposes, &c.—Opera and Race-course Glasses with wonderful powers; a military object can be clearly seen from 10 to 12 miles distant.—Invaluable newly-invented preserving Spectacles. Invaluable and all kinds of Optical Instruments for relief of extreme deafness.—Messrs. S. & R. SOLOMON, Opticians and Astrucers, 39, Abchurch-lane, Finsbury, opposite the York Hotel.

REVOLUTION in LITHOGRAPHY.—The GREAT PATENT SELF-ACTING LITHOGRAPHIC PRINTING MACHINE, by STEAM POWER.—MACLURE, MACDONALD & MACGREGOR, Her Majesty's Lithographers, have great pleasure in announcing that they hold the exclusive right in this very important and useful invention, and that these Machines are now in full operation at their Office, 7, Walbrook, by means of which Speed equal to the Letter-Press Machine is obtained, with all the infinite variety and power for which the Lithographic Art is so remarkable, of half the cost of the ordinary comparatively tedious hand process.

Offices—London, 37, Walbrook, Mansion House; Manchester, 74, Market-street; Liverpool, 15, Fearwell-street; and Glasgow, 2, St. Vincent-place.

London, August 15, 1853.

THE LAWSON OBSERVATORY.

It being generally acknowledged that an Observatory in the centre of England would be highly calculated to promote the interests of Science and to create a taste for Scientific pursuits; and Mr. Lawson of Newcastle, having determined to give his Collection of Instruments, 10,000s. in value, and one thousand guineas, towards the establishment of an Observatory for the Midland District, provided the sum of 10,000s. be raised for a site, building and endowment for a resident astronomer: the Committee appointed at a public meeting, at which his Grace the Duke of Newcastle presided, have obtained by subscriptions about 3000s. towards this object, including Mr. Lawson's 1,000 guineas. Mr. Lawson has now limited the time for effecting this purpose to the 1st of October next. Unless the Public, therefore, promptly respond to this appeal by contributing the remainder, Mr. Lawson's noble offer will be withdrawn, and the opportunity of establishing this nationally important Observatory in so favourable a district, and of securing this important gift of Astronomical and Meteorological Apparatus, in the practical application of which all classes in the Country are interested, will be lost.

Subscriptions may be made at Messrs. Glyn, Mills & Co., and Messrs. Roberts, Curtis & Co. London; at all the Nottingham Banks; at Messrs. Evans, Derby; and at Messrs. Pares, Leicester, &c.

The following, amongst other Subscriptions, have already been obtained; and the Scientific and general Public are earnestly urged to come forward liberally in support of this most desirable object:—

SUBSCRIPTION LIST.		Right Hon. Lord New-	
Mr. H. Lawson,	£1000 0 0	ark, M.P.	£35 0 0
His Grace the Duke	100 0 0	Mr. Hon. Lord Somers	25 0 0
of Newcastle	100 0 0	Mr. E. Pease Burnell	25 0 0
The Right Hon. Earl	100 0 0	Mr. T. Clive	25 0 0
Manvers	100 0 0	Mr. F. H. Edge	25 0 0
Mr. W. W. W.	100 0 0	Mr. T. Moore	25 0 0
Mr. J. E. Denison, M.P.	100 0 0	Mr. F. Robinson	25 0 0
Mr. J. Bradley	100 0 0	Mr. J. T. St. John	25 0 0
Mr. W. Evans	70 0 0	Lady Sherbrooke	25 0 0
Mr. J. W. Walsingham	50 0 0	Mr. J. S. Sherwin	25 0 0
C.E.	50 0 0	Mr. W. H. Barrow	25 0 0
Rt. Hon. Earl Howe	50 0 0	F.R.S.	25 0 0
Richd. Hon. Earl	50 0 0	Mr. G. Heywood	25 0 0
M.P. F.G.S.	50 0 0	Mr. B. Birkin	25 0 0
Mr. W. H. Barrow	50 0 0	Mr. H. Mallett	25 0 0
M.P.	50 0 0	Mr. J. Heckles	25 0 0
Mr. J. E. Denison, M.P.	50 0 0	Mr. H. Sherbrooke	25 0 0
Mr. T. Herbert	50 0 0	Mr. T. W. Walsingham	25 0 0
Mr. A. Lowe	50 0 0	Mr. B. H. Hine	25 0 0
Mr. J. C. Wright	50 0 0		
F.R.S.	50 0 0		
Mr. T. W. Walsingham	50 0 0		
Mr. L. Hale	50 0 0		

Besides Subscriptions under 50s. each.

E. J. LOWE, Hon. Sec.
Committee Rooms, Nottingham,
September 1, 1853.

s Should the requisite sum not be obtained the Subscriptions will be returned.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1893.

REVIEWS

The Flower of a Day: an Original Drama, in a Prologue and Three Acts. By Don Francisco Camprodon. Translated from the Spanish, with a Few Remarks on the Modern Drama of Spain, by W. Biddulph Parker. Parker.

AFTER an "absence of some years" in the Peninsula, Mr. Parker was surprised, on returning to England, to find prevalent here what he conceives to be a false impression of the "national drama and poetry" of Spain. In the hope, therefore, of refuting an "undeserved calumny," he selected and translated three plays, as specimens of the modern drama of that country;—but found, to his "grievous disappointment," such difficulty in getting them published, that he has confined himself to this single example, "*The Flower of a Day*," which, although inferior in dramatic merit to the other pieces selected, he preferred, because he thought its poetry, in the Spanish, "prettier" than usual. Under the circumstances, it may be doubted whether the choice, on such grounds alone, was judicious. The mode of translation which he has adopted, by turning the *romance* and other metres of his original into the totally different form of blank verse, sacrifices its "prettiness": and all that can be preserved in a version of this kind is, the scenic quality of the work,—in which the others, as he says, are "far superior."

The result will hardly be so successful as the translator may desire in removing the prejudice which he denounces. The subject of Camprodon's play is by no means new: nor is it so treated as to give a fresh effect to the "old tale,"—which is, generally, as follows.—A young pair are betrothed: on the eve of their union the male lover is summoned to his father's death-bed in America,—and embarks, after exchanging vows of fidelity with his mistress. This forms the "prologue." The play begins at a period four years later. Lola, the heroine, in the meanwhile has married another, a frigid man of the world; partly tempted by his title of Marquis, partly in obedience to the last wishes of her father, who died soon after Diego, the lover, had left Spain. The hero returns, ignorant of what has happened, to claim his bride. On reaching land he happens to save the Marquis from drowning; is presented to his wife as the deliverer,—and so discovers Lola's faithlessness. Her regret and revived love for Diego, quickened by the unhappiness of her married life, are soon detected by a jealous husband. Diego is challenged; disarms his rival,—but spares his life, on condition that Lola shall be set free by a formal separation. This he demands, not for his own advantage—since he means to quit Spain and the fickle lady for ever,—but from a generous regard for her happiness. The Marquis is touched; and in the communication of the result to Lola he displays a warmth of feeling which reconciles his estranged wife to her lot. The separation—with Diego's assent—is thereupon renounced; the generous lover, after embracing everybody, sails for the Brazils; and the curtain falls.

This, it will be seen, is neither tragedy, comedy, nor melo-drama, but something that faintly partakes of each and all:—in which dubious character, at least, the play may be said to represent, more completely than Mr. Parker designed, one condition of the modern Spanish theatre. That stage, as we have said on former occasions, is itself altogether unsettled, heterogeneous in its elements, and as little "national" as may be;—if this term means, as it ought, something peculiar to the soil, and instinct with

a character of its own, springing from the heart of the nation:—such a character, in short, as the old and truly "national" drama of Spain—from Lope down to Cañizares—possessed, in a higher degree than any other stage whatever,—that of Greece alone excepted. Of the remaining theatres of modern Europe, our own is the single rival, in this character, to the Spanish; and precisely because in this respect, genuine and thoroughly popular as it was, but less exclusively reflecting a particular time in certain local features, it laid a broader foundation in common interests to all mankind,—its creations still live in the closet, and on the boards,—while the miracles of Spanish dramatic genius, transcendent as they were, have become mere traditions—even in their own country. It is true, that single pieces by Tellez (Tirso de Molina) Moreto, Rojas and Calderon—some even of Lope's and Montalvan's, rewritten and cramped by Trigueros and others into the French "unities"—might be seen a few years since on the boards, at times, in one or two of the Spanish cities,—and may, perhaps, still hold a doubtful position there. But such exceptions are mainly due to the tenacity of the ruder classes, who are less changed than those above them.—The latter have imbibed whatever culture they possess from foreign sources; and have no sympathy with the "rudeness," "irregularity," and "monotony" of the old drama. There is no gainsaying the evidence of facts which prove the feeling of Spanish society in this respect. For instance, there is no modern collection of the plays of Lope† extant; and those who seek the old edition, one of the rarest of scarce books, will not even find a perfect copy in any of the Spanish libraries,—but must seek it in Paris, London, or Prague. The attempts recently made in Madrid to revive the national manner, will merely convince those who, knowing the old theatre, have felt its spirit, how entirely every principle essential to it is wanting to the modern stage. In the old drama, the secret of its originality, its intense poetic life, lay in the vivid reflection on minds of prodigious vivacity of an exceptional state of society, manners, opinions,—all of which have ceased to exist, except in tradition. The equivalent, in modern Spain, for what was once a compact and strongly marked social system, is just now a mere chaos; in which the old has disappeared, while the new, which may replace it, is still unformed. Amid the anarchy of a state of transition, while foreign influences, however reluctantly admitted, prevail in everything that moulds society, and nothing like a settled form of national being has yet resulted from a fusion of its actual incoherencies,—it is simply impossible to create a genuine new stage; while to restore the old, by striving to copy its outward forms, or to resume its liberties, after the long interval of bondage to French critical law, is an idle waste of effort. The modern Spanish dramatist emulous of foreign effects, while yearning after the lost glories of his native theatre, may be pardoned for indulging in vain hopes; but no considerate bystander, if duly conversant with the principles indispensable to the being of a national drama, will be misled by their illusions. That Mr. Parker, and others

† The mean little edition of *Com. Escogidas* (Madrid, 1836–34) which ceased, incomplete, at the 29th vol. containing but 16 of some 400 plays which have been preserved, of the 1,500 or more that Lope wrote. Even of "Calderon," since Apuntes' edition of 1763, there has been no Spanish reprint until lately—in the *Bib. de Autores Espanoles*, now publishing at Madrid, by Ribadeneira. This series, the inconvenient form of which has been dictated by considerations of cheapness, is valuable to Spanish scholars. It has produced the first complete Alarcón: and 36 of Tirso's plays, of which a second volume is announced,—with the more important promise of an edition of Lope, which we hope, for the credit of Spain, may be fulfilled.

with him, should proclaim the vitality of the modern Spanish stage,—that strange mixture of old forms, and appeals to motives now extinct, with foreign sentiment and native instability, reflecting nothing real from the world around it but the confusion of the society which it serves to amuse,—this, we must say, merely proves how rare is the understanding of what poetry—dramatic poetry especially—is, and must be, in order to any kind of genuine being whatever, to say nothing of a special "national" consistence.

Returning to the play which Mr. Parker puts forward to vindicate his judgment, it is but fair to repeat, that it is by no means one of the best of its time; and also that whatever "prettiness" it may show in the original, can be but faintly seen in the stiff dress with which the translator has clothed it. The pomp and gravity of our best blank verse are quite alien to the vivacious manner of the Spanish drama; which is set to music, as it were, by the cadence of its rapid rhythmical verses, in a language above all others apt for their melody. The marvellous ease, variety and sweetness, with a rare command of brief and vigorous expression, which characterize the rich style of the old poets, and especially of Lope de Vega, will indeed be sought in vain in the lax and artless lines of their modern rivals.—Still, the Castilian, though in its decline, preserves its grace of motion, and a musical flow, that bears about the same relation to blank verse, such at least as Mr. Parker indites, as may exist between the song of a bird and the grating of a saw. This premised, in mere justice to the cause which he maintains, and which we oppose,—the following scene may be extracted; as containing the only passage in the play which can be properly termed dramatic—the meeting, namely, of the estranged lovers—whose position is described in the argument sketched above.

Enter the MARQUIS and DON DIEGO, the latter leaning on the MARQUIS'S arm.

MARQUIS. My Lola, I present to you my friend,
The hero, whose undaunted energy
Hath saved your husband from the angry deep.

DIEGO. Lady, I bow—my God!

Lola.

MARQUIS (apart). This woman, too, hath only sold her heart!

(To DON DIEGO.) You must not wonder that a youthful wife

Should feel at first affected, when she meets
The saviour of her husband's life. Her love
Will plead with you her cause, and she will tell
The gratitude that centres in our breasts,
Towards so tried a friend. (To the MARQUESSES.) Whilst

I arrange

All the festivities, I leave to you
A worthier task—to entertain our guest. (Exit.)

DIEGO. Then all my cherished, fondest hopes are o'er!

Lola. Oh, Diego, if my grief can expiate
The wrongs I heaped on you, let but one word
Of pity tell me I may hope for grace.

DIEGO. If thou shouldst hear the story of a serck,
Now that on earth 'en love is but a dream
Say, will my memory find a sepulchre?

Here, in my heart, 'twill find a hallowed rest.
Thus spoke a woman, weeping, when she knew
The truth, the constancy, with which her heart
Was sought, was idolized. But you, no doubt,
Have long forgotten such a paltry tale.

No! you cannot remember that my life
Was centred, guarded, treasured in my heart
For you, and you alone. My soul, inflamed
With pride, dreamt of its wished-for paradise
In Lola's love. And could you never think
Of a poor pilgrim, who had but one flower
To greet him on his way—one single star
To shed its lustre on his lonely path?

Now that to-day a life's fond fancy's o'er,
Give in excuse but one—one single word—
Tell me if you have met more love than mine?

Tell me that it is so, and I forgive.
Lola. Diego! for heaven's sake, have mercy!

Diego. Why, Lola, when I placed my happiness,
My hopes, in you, why did you not confess
Your shallowness, as now? Why did your heart
Lie in its tale of love? Why did you not
Give to the credulous insensate fool
Who saw in you an angel's constancy,
"I have no depth within—who trusts in me
Writeth his name upon the treacherous tide?
Because your love is but a day's frail flower,
It lasteth as a lily lasts—and tell
The wretched dupe, who trusts in woman's love,

His only gain shall be his martyrdom.
What let's to her, if in the change her ears
Are filled with flattery, to turn a life
Of hope to barren wretchedness? If she
But sees the withered blossoms of our hopes
Nipped in the bud with an indifferent smile,
She greets her dupe—the victim's agony.

Lola. You do me hurt—mercy!
Diego. Poor fragile girl,
Is there nought else to say but mercy? Thus,
Thus can ye all fill up the bitter cup,
But shrink, and turn away at the first taste.
Lola. And shed the gall of misery on your life,
And heaven has avenged you. Put your trust in heaven,
Whose rod is sterner than the words of man.
Heaven left to me remorse—punished my fault
With a sad endless dream of love that was,
And now exists not; if perchance you know
The anguish of this thought, complain; if not,
Speak of unhappiness no more to me.
Say, have you, listening to the murmuring sound
Of running water, with a vacant gaze,
Intent on nothing, passed the long, dull hours,
Your eyes oppressed with tears? Say, have you dreamt
Of all that was—of all that ne'er can be?
A perished Eden's glory, which must die—
Die, or be smothered; and when the worn soul
Finds in this heavenly balm some rest from woe,
Say, have you heard a voice cry, "Faithless wife,
It is a crime to nourish these fond hopes!"
And when the heart is breaking, and there is
No hope but death, between your love and death
The barrier of eternity is raised;
And when in presence of the man I loved
So well, and whom I wronged so much, I know
Not how to speak one word in my defence;
Nor can I even dry up his tears, which flow
Through me and my sole fault; and when resigned
To his contempt, I would lay down my life,
My soul, with thankfulness, could I restore
The bliss of which I robbed him. Tell me now,
Should you before this woman's prostrate heart
Speak of your anguish?

Diego. Lady! fare you well.
Lola (apart). And I was able to forget him! God,
But this was wanting to the sacrifice,
To find him generous, as I find him now.

On listening to the rapid rhetoric of this dialogue, how many will recur to the intimates of the old theatre of Spain, in which situations of the same kind are presented; but with what a difference in warmth, sincerity, and dramatic force of treatment—amidst the conventional figures and flourishes which belonged to the stage costume of the time!—We do not even speak of examples taken from masters of the Spanish drama;—but of those which may be found in pieces of a subordinate class; such, for instance, as the 'Diablo Predicador' of Belmonte, a playwright of the minor sort, indeed, but one of the golden age of Lope de Vega. In that strange compound of broad farce and fervid monastic unction, there is a scene between two discovered lovers, of which, under different antecedents, the dramatic motive is the same as Camprodon's. We recommend the comparison to all readers of Spanish who wish to study the conditions that distinguish the life of a national drama from the effect of vain attempts to revive with alien excitements a spirit which has expired.—The subject, interesting as it is in a literary sense, is too wide to be pursued on the present occasion. It must, therefore, suffice to say, that considerations of space, not want of instances, prevent us from calling further evidence, or showing how it bears on the ground taken up in Mr. Parker's preface.

History of the Byzantine Empire from 716 to 1057. By George Finlay. Blackwood.

NOTWITHSTANDING the labours of Gibbon and others who have succeeded him, a continuous history of the Greek or Eastern Empire has long been a desideratum. This desideratum Mr. Finlay seems to have assumed the task of supplying. He is performing the task by instalments. In two previous volumes—the one entitled 'Greece under the Romans,' and tracing the history of the Greek part of the world from B.C. 146 to the extinction of the Roman dynasty of Eastern Emperors, A.D. 717—the other entitled 'History of Greece from its Conquest by

† The play is now accessible in Ochoa's 'Tesoro,' Vol. II. published by Baudry in his (Paris) Collection of Spanish Authors.

the Crusaders, A.D. 1204, to its Conquest by the Turks, A.D. 1461—he had already broken in upon his vast subject, so to speak, at both ends; leaving blank only the intermediate portion from 717 to 1204, constituting 'Byzantine History' properly so called. The manner in which this history divides itself is thus stated by Mr. Finlay.—

"The history of the Byzantine empire divides itself into three periods, strongly marked by distinct characteristics. The first period commences with the reign of Leo III. in 716, and terminates with that of Michael III. in 867. It comprises the whole history of the predominance of the Iconoclasts in the established church, and of the re-action which reinstated the orthodox in power. It opens with the efforts by which Leo and the people of the empire saved the Roman law and the Christian religion from the conquering Saracens. It embraces a long and violent struggle between the government and the people, the emperors seeking to increase the central power by annihilating every local franchise, and even the right of private opinion, among their subjects. The contest concerning image-worship, from the prevalence of ecclesiastical ideas, became the expression of this struggle. Its object was as much to consolidate the supremacy of the imperial authority, as to purify the practice of the church. The emperors wished to constitute themselves the fountains of ecclesiastical as completely as of civil legislation. The long and bloody wars of this period, and the vehement character of the sovereigns who filled the throne, attract the attention of those who love to dwell on the romantic facts of history. Unfortunately, the biographical sketches and individual characters of the heroes of these ages lie concealed in the dull chronicles. But the true historical feature of this memorable period is the aspect of a declining empire, saved by the moral vigour developed in society, and of the central authority struggling to restore national prosperity. Never was such a succession of able sovereigns seen following one another on any other throne. The stern Iconoclast, Leo the Isaurian, opens the line as the second founder of the Eastern Empire. His son, the fiery Constantine, who was said to prefer the odour of the stable to the perfumes of his palaces, replanted the Christian standards on the banks of the Euphrates. Irene, the beautiful Athenian, presents a strange combination of talent, heartlessness, and orthodoxy. The finance minister, Nicephorus, perishes on the field of battle like an old Roman. The Armenian Leo falls at the altar of his private chapel, murdered as he is singing psalms with his deep voice, before day-dawn. Michael the Amorian, who slammered Greek with his native Phrygian accent, became the founder of an imperial dynasty, destined to be extinguished by a Slavonian groom. The accomplished Theophilus lived in an age of romance, both in action and literature. His son, Michael, the last of the Amorian family, was the only contemptible prince of this period, and he was certainly the most despicable buffoon that ever occupied a throne. The second period commences with the reign of Basil I. in 867, and terminates with the deposition of Michael VI. in 1057. During these two centuries the imperial sceptre was retained by members of the Basilian family, or held by those who shared their throne as guardians or husbands. At this time the Byzantine empire attained its highest pitch of external power and internal prosperity. The Saracens were pursued into the plains of Syria. Antioch and Edessa were re-united to the empire. The Bulgarian monarchy was conquered, and the Danube became again the northern frontier. The Slavonians in Greece were almost exterminated. Byzantine commerce filled the whole Mediterranean, and legitimated the claim of the Emperor of Constantinople to the title of Autocrat of the Mediterranean Sea. But the real glory of this period consists in the power of the law. Respect for the administration of justice pervaded society more generally than it had ever done at any preceding period of the history of the world—a fact which our greatest historians have overlooked, though it is all-important in the history of human civilization. The third period extends from the accession of Isaac I. (Comnenus) in 1057, to the conquest of the Byzantine empire

by the Crusaders, in 1204. This is the true period of the decline and fall of the Eastern Empire. It commenced by a rebellion of the great nobles of Asia, who effected an internal revolution in the Byzantine empire by wrenching the administration out of the hands of well-trained officials, and destroying the responsibility created by systematic procedure. A despotism supported by personal influence soon ruined the scientific fabric which had previously upheld the imperial power. The people were ground to the earth by a fiscal rapacity, over which the splendour of the house of Comnenus throws a thin veil. The wealth of the empire was dissipated, its prosperity destroyed, the administration of justice corrupted, and the central authority lost all control over the population, when a band of 20,000 adventurers, masked as crusaders, put an end to the Roman empire of the East."

The present volume embraces the first two of these three periods, and may be considered as an expansion of the facts briefly indicated in the first two of the three paragraphs quoted. A forthcoming volume will embrace the third period, and conduct the story of the Byzantine Empire to its conquest and disruption by the Crusaders; and thus Mr. Finlay will have traversed the whole period to which he has directed his historical labours.

Though aware of the importance of his task, Mr. Finlay does not overrate its interest. He thus characterizes Byzantine history generally.—

"The government of the Eastern Empire was always systematic and cautious. Reforms were slowly effected; but when the necessity was admitted, great changes were gradually completed. Generations, however, passed away without men noticing how far they had quitted the customs of their fathers, and entered on new paths leading to very different habits, thoughts, and institutions. The reign of no one emperor, if we except that of Leo the Isaurian, embraces a revolution in the institutions of the state, completed in a single generation; hence it is that Byzantine history loses the interest to be derived from individual biography. It steps over centuries, marking rather the movement of generations of mankind than the acts of individual emperors and statesmen, and it becomes a didactic essay on political progress instead of a living picture of man's actions. In the days of the liberty of Athens, the life of each leader embraces the history of many revolutions, and the mind of a single individual seems often to guide or modify their course; but in the years of Constantinopolitan servitude, emperors and people are borne slowly onward by a current of which we are not always certain that we can trace the origin or follow the direction."

The nature of the merits of the present volume may be inferred from this description by anticipation of what merits it could possibly have. It is a solid and accurate performance, presenting in a succinct shape all the essential facts of the history of the Eastern Empire from 716 to 1057,—and therefore a very valuable contribution to our library of works of historical reference; but, from the very nature of the materials, it is not a work of strong or popular interest. At the present day, indeed, when the notion of a resuscitation of the Greek Empire is so largely propounded as a solution of the Eastern Question, it is probable that a volume will be welcome which gives an account of what that empire was which, in form at least, it is desired to resuscitate. Mr. Finlay asserts, and probably with justice, that Gibbon and other historians have, in their exclusive attention to the intrigues and dynastic revolutions of which Constantinople was the scene, underrated the amount of social well-being and civilization which was secured to the East by Byzantine rule, and also the real strength of that rule as a bulwark against Asiatic barbarism. The Eastern Empire, he maintains, was far in advance of the West, in law, order, and even morality. Thus:—

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Byzantine empire under the Iconoclast emperors was superior to that of any equal number of the human race in any preceding period, can hardly be doubted. The bulk of society occupied a higher social position in the time of Constantine Copronymus than of Pericles; the masses had gained more by the decrease of slavery and the extension of free labour than the privileged citizens had lost. Public opinion, though occupied on meaner objects, had a more extended basis, and embraced a larger class. Perhaps, too, the war of opinions concerning ecclesiastical forms or subtleties tended to develop pure morality as much as the ambitious party-struggles of the Pnyx. When the merits and defects of each age are fairly weighed, both will be found to offer lessons of experience which the student of political history ought not to neglect. There may be some difference of opinion concerning the respective merits of Hellenic, Roman, and Byzantine society, but there can be none concerning the superiority of Byzantine over that which existed in the contemporary empires of the Saracens and the Franks. There we find all moral restraints weakened, and privileged classes or conquering nations ruling an immense subject population, with very little reference to law, morality, or religion. Violence and injustice claimed at Bagdat an unbounded license, until the Turkish mercenaries extinguished the caliphate, and it was the Norman invaders who reformed the social condition of the Franks. Mohammedanism legalised polygamy with all its evils in the East. In the West, licentiousness was unbounded, in defiance of the precepts of Christianity. Charles Martel, Pepin, and Charlemagne are said all to have had two wives at a time, and a numerous household of concubines. But on turning to the Byzantine empire, we find that the Emperor Constantine VI. prepared the way for his own ruin by divorcing his first wife and marrying a second, in what was considered an illegal manner. The laws of the Franks attest the frequency of female drunkenness; and the whole legislation of Western Europe, during the seventh and eighth centuries, indicates great immorality, and a degree of social anarchy, which explains more clearly than the political events recorded in history, the real cause of the fall of one government after another. The superior moral tone of society in the Byzantine empire was one of the great causes of its long duration; it was its true conservative principle."

This view is certainly somewhat novel, and we must refer for its confirmation to the volume itself,—a volume, we repeat, which, in addition to its more solid value, is not destitute of a certain immediate interest as supplying information relative to the Greek Empire and the Greek Church—both of which are subjects now in the ascendant.

A Cruise in the Ægean: the Retrospect of a Summer Journey Westward "from the Great City by Propontic Sea;" including an Ascent of Mount Ætna. By Walter Watson. Harrison.

THE ascent, "included," is the freshest portion of this volume,—so that, no one need regret our taking little notice of the chapter "from Constantinople to Malta," or of certain later pages devoted to Naples, Rome, Genoa, &c. &c.,—which cities, also, Mr. Watson visited during his 'Cruise.' The idea of the excursion occurred to our author somewhat suddenly; and since guide-books—the exploded tome of Mrs. Starke not forgotten—have been apt to describe a couple of days as indispensable to the ascent and descent of Etna,—and as the steamer to which Mr. Watson was tied limited its stay in the harbour of Catania to only a day and a half,—he naturally fancied that he might be unable to reach the crater, though he determined to climb the mountain as high, and to see as much, as he could.—The adventure will be best described in a series of extracts.—

"As soon as our decision was made, we commissioned the *laquis de place* of Signor Abbate's hotel to make the necessary arrangements for our departure from Catania at five o'clock in the afternoon, which hour he assured us suits very well to enable

one to reach the summit by daybreak next morning. A couple of carpet-bags contained our outfit, consisting of suits of cloth clothes, for which we exchanged our light summer dress on reaching Nicolosi, the last village on the mountain-side, and warm travelling coats and wrappers. Our commissariat included a bottle of brandy, two of ale, and two of ready-made coffee, some cold meat, and an ample supply of bread and cheese. The bread was in the form of small rolls, as white and, when stale, as hard and dry as plaster-of-paris. The cheese '*il piu fino fromaggio di vacca—di bove.*' * * The guides took a small supply of wood, and a large stone bottle of water. We found the strong worsted gloves, which the commissaire procured for us, very serviceable. But what we most felt the want of in descending was an umbrella to afford some shelter against the awful heat, I may say, of the mid-day sun; and a crape veil, to keep the suffocating dust from one's face, is in my opinion, much more necessary than a mattress to sleep on. * * A lumbering old two-horse carriage was awaiting our arrival in the street, and by five o'clock we were fairly under weigh, jolting through the Strada di Etna,—a fine, broad, straight street, extending a considerable distance in the direction of the mountain, as its name implies. At the termination of this street commences the Strada Ferdinanda, a carriage-road constructed by order of the King of Naples, in 1837, with much labour and expense, as far as Nicolosi, the last village in the ascent. * * This village may be reached in about two hours by carriage, avoiding a tedious ride on a mule, of more than double that time. * * The road we followed was as good as could be expected in such ground, for in many places the labour and expense of construction must have been very great. With some few exceptions, the ascent is gradual, and our horses kept up a fair pace the whole way. The landscape assumes a sterner aspect as one leaves the precincts of the city. Fertile gardens and luxuriant vineyards are succeeded by a tract where cultivation seems to wrestle with desolation, and the plough is impeded in its course through the light black soil by many a rugged mass, the grim precursors of the stony streams above. The *Cactus opuntia*, or prickly pear, thrives here amazingly, and grows to a great size; at this time the plants were loaded with fruit about the size and shape of a small pear, covered with prickles like a pine-apple; it ripens in August. Before reaching Nicolosi, two villages of considerable size are passed, in each of which the church steeple attracted our attention. The bell-tower terminated in a pyramid covered with small round stones of different colours. * * The villagers looked poverty-stricken, and their tanned, harsh features gave them an appearance of premature age and decay. * * Great amusement was excited at a tavern-door where the horses were baited, by the Doctor's making a hasty sketch of a tattered old crane, the very antipodes of female beauty; but with the basket on her head, and the particoloured rags which hung about her body, she certainly made up what artists call 'a splendid bit.' In little more than two hours from the time of starting, we reached Nicolosi. The inn, though very unassuming in appearance, we found clean, and fit to satisfy any not over-fastidious traveller. * *

The accommodation consisted of a large paved room, in the centre of which stood a plain deal table and some chairs, and in each corner was a bed, on which we were nothing loth to throw ourselves, that we might recover a little from the effects of our hot jolting drive, whilst the *laquis de place* provided the necessary mules and guides. * * After a while, I was roused from a heavy, lethargic slumber by a rough hand shaking me, and a voice shouting in my ear.—'Signor, Signor! bisogna alzarai presto! presto! stanno per partire.' * * Silent and drowsy, we advanced through the gloomy forest, sometimes gradually, sometimes abruptly ascending, with our beacon-light, the crater, crowned with red glowing light, in full view; but the darkness around us was so intense that we could scarce distinguish a tree from a mass of lava. It was tedious enough to plod slowly on in this manner, the more so that the air was beginning to feel very keen, and the wind whistled uncomfortably through the trees. There was nothing to be done but to have patience, and place implicit reliance on the surefootedness of the mules. * *

I cannot say whether it was from a sense of security, or of my utter helplessness in case of accident, but I certainly had no apprehension of danger, and yielding to the effects of the see-saw motion, was soon rocked to sleep, and thus shortened the journey by two hours at least. The only break in the long ride was at the 'Casa delle Neve,' a spacious natural grotto, converted into a storehouse for lumps of frozen snow, and a stable for the mules which come to fetch it. The snow on Mount Etna furnishes a source of wealth to the Catanians, by no means inconsiderable. Above a certain height, it is found in congealed, granulated masses, and in this state is fit for conveyance to all the large towns in the island, and even as far as Malta. Constantinople and the vicinity are in like manner supplied with this article, of paramount necessity in a warm climate, from the cavities near the summit of Mount Olympus, where the snow lies throughout the year."

The cold, which keeps a supply of this same snow fresh and ready for the Turk, and the rarefied state of the atmosphere, prove, possibly owing to the violence of contrast, more perilous to the mountain climber than they are in more northern latitudes. One of Mr. Watson's travelling companions suffered so cruelly from both, that the party were compelled to leave him behind, at the Casa Inglese; and his lungs, it was thought, received on the night of this excursion the injury of which he subsequently died.—

"The Casa Inglese" is a rough, substantial building, perhaps about 40 feet by 12 in size, entirely made of lava, except just so much wood as is absolutely indispensable. The space enclosed by the four walls is divided into three rooms of unequal size, answering the purpose of kitchen and sitting-rooms: these latter are furnished with a long table, two benches, and a strong inclined plane, extending the whole length of one side, intended to serve as a bedstead on an emergency; here it was we deposited our sick friend, and this was the *ne plus ultra* of his ascent of Mount Etna. * * By the time we had refreshed our weary frames with rest and coffee, it was a quarter to five; and the guides warned us, that, as it was impossible to reach the summit soon enough to see the sun rise, we had better hasten to the brow of a neighbouring hill for that purpose. From this eminence we could command an extensive view of the Italian coast, having in the background the bold and varied outline of the Calabrian mountains. Then, indeed, the cold and fatigue of the night voyage were soon forgotten in the contemplation of this wonderful sight. The usual precursors of sunrise, the grey clouds, the red mist, and the golden halo, successively cleared away, and the glorious orb rose in cloudless majesty between the southernmost peaks of the Apennines. As there is no twilight in this latitude, the greater part of the island was thus suddenly displayed before our gaze, except where the mountain still intercepted the sun's rays. The deep shadow not finding space, on account of its great length, to be contained within the limits of the land, rested on the grey sea-mist far away over the blue waves of the Mediterranean, where the vapoury outline of the mountain seemed to be bent upwards into the air. The increasing warmth rapidly dispersed the morning mist, and opened to us a panoramic view, which, though far inferior to that seen from the crater, will yet abundantly repay the toil and expense incurred by any one who has the good fortune to ascend even thus far in fine weather. The thermometer now stood at 45°, and the bracing air, which was delightfully refreshing, invigorated us for the toil of climbing the crater,—in itself a small mountain rising to the height of a thousand feet, and, as we found to our cost, more steep and difficult of access than all the rest of the volcano together, as far as we had to do with it. Seen from a little distance, it appears almost perpendicular, such is the steepness of the side; and the work of ascending is more than usually toilsome from the deep coating of soft ashes and scoria, where the foot sinks without gaining a firm foothold,—for half the step forward is lost in slipping backwards again. I have accomplished many a steep climb in Switzerland, where at least every step was so much distance gained; but never encountered a task to be compared with this cruelly deceptive hill, which,

when we started, it seemed a bare half-hour's task to scale. The approach to the crater from the house of refuge lies over a deep bed of lava, cracked and broken, and tumbled about in masses of every possible shape and dimension, as if the Cyclops had been wont to empty in this place the refuse from their vast forge. This uncomfortable walk, where a false step would infallibly be marked by a broken shin at least, extends about a quarter of a mile, with occasional beds of firm snow to revive one's courage and comfort the feet. We had not climbed a quarter of the height before the poor Doctor began to complain piteously of the painful effects of the toilsome ascent through the rarefied air, and to doubt the possibility of accomplishing our object. The sharp pains I began to feel myself—just such a sensation, in fact, as is produced by running against the wind in frosty weather—somewhat staggered my own resolution. However, I found that the pain subsided as I became gradually accustomed to the work by making frequent halts. We had not proceeded very far in this manner when the Doctor gave in, lay down on his back, panting for breath, and declared he should die if he went a step further. * * * The mouth of the crater was so distinctly visible from where I stood, that I fancied one vigorous effort would complete the task; but, alas! my hopes were doomed to cruel disappointment, when the guide, a rough peasant-lad, coolly answered to my eager question, 'How much farther to go?'—'About half-way.' * * * 'In that case,' I despondingly replied, 'it is impossible for me to reach the summit.' I crawled to a friendly block of lava projecting close at hand, and sat down, fairly beaten, dejected, and crestfallen. Overcome by the journey through the night, and the fatigue of the morning's work, I fell into a deep sleep, utterly unconscious and oblivious of the pains and pleasures of my singular situation. My repose lasted about five minutes, and then to what a scene I opened my eyes!"

This grand view—the features of which are described with a prolixity that defies compression—spirited up Mr. Watson to make the last effort.—

"Fortunately, however, I soon found that the worst part of the task was well nigh accomplished; for a considerable undulation, which we reached with some little exertion, produced the effect of walking on comparatively level ground, and the soil being firmer, yielded but little to the pressure of the foot. We were now fast approaching the crater, and in this elevated region the ground is covered with the most beautiful crystals of sulphur and nitre, as delicate as the hoar frost, and glowing in the morning sun with an infinite variety of colour. * * * At one time we crushed the dry, sparkling crystals beneath our feet, at another sank in the soft yellow mud. A light step and a quick pace carry one easily over this sulphureous quagmire; but when I stopped to take breath, I found myself over shoes in the hot mud, and soon began to wax uncomfortably warm. In the immediate neighbourhood of the crater, the internal heat suffices to keep the ground dry and hard, so that the remaining portion of the ascent was accomplished without difficulty or danger; though we were from time to time enveloped in the clouds of suffocating smoke, or vapour, which incessantly burst forth from the crater. Our path now lay along the edge of a vast hollow, perfectly round and smooth, and lined with a thick crust of crystallized sulphur, into which I rather hesitatingly followed the guide; but seeing that he plodded on *comme si ne rien était*, I felt I could not do better than tread in his footsteps over the treacherous ground. After descending a little way, we again climbed the steep side, and emerging from this preparatory wonder, stood 'upon the crater's burning lips.' * * * We stood on the edge of a precipitous chasm, sharp and rugged as if the mountain had just been rent asunder. The internal surface, as far as the eye could penetrate, consisted of a coating of sulphureous earth, which seemed to be continually burning without being consumed; whilst through innumerable fissures jets of flame darted up, and played over the glowing mass, dazzling the eye by the intense brightness and variety of their colouring. The jagged, irregular outline of the whole crater is divided by a vast projecting wall of rock, of most singular appearance, coated with the deposit of the fumes which rise from the great laboratory below.

This sublimation, being chiefly sulphur, appeared in every shade of bright yellow, orange, and crimson, as it glittered in the morning sunbeam. Clouds of dense white vapour rose, from time to time, from the innermost depths, with a hissing, roaring sound like a mighty cataract. The occasional intermission of the rising clouds which steamed forth from the great gulf, afforded a partial glance of the lurid fire raging in the internal abyss. All around, as far as the eye could reach, within the crater, huge masses of rock lay tumbled over each other in chaotic confusion. Such an appearance, when the volcano is in a quiescent state, cannot fail to impress a spectator with a fearful idea of the inconceivable powers set in operation when the pent-up fires burst their bonds; and through this chasm, which is said to be near three miles in extent, the mountain hurls back the rocks buried within it by the fury of some earlier commotion. For myself, I can only say, that the glorious view from the dizzy height on the one side, and on the other the bewildering noise, the dazzling glare, and the sulphureous vapour, concurred to raise a mingled feeling of admiration, awe, and terror."

We must refer to the volume for the particulars of the descent; which was, of course, more rapidly accomplished,—so as to allow of the travellers taking a quiet nap after dinner at Nicolosi (which they reached at 3 o'clock, P.M.), before driving into Catania in the cool of the evening. But the few closing lines devoted to the cost of the ascent to the party of three will be welcome as practical hints to those who are disposed, like them, to try such an episode, by varying a June or July steamboat cruise in the Ægean.—

"The whole expense of our 'day on shore' we found to be as follows:—

	Dollars.	Carlines.
Carriage to and from Nicolosi	6	..
Driver, 6 c.; boy, 2 c.	8
Provisions	1	4
Commissionaire, two days	2	..
Two guides, and a boy	6	6
Six Mules	4	..
Supper, 1 dol.; dinner, 3 dol.	4	..
Boat, 1 dol.; sundries, 1 dol. 6 c.	2	6
	37	..

making our individual expenses, 9 dollars, or 11. 17s. 6d. each, exclusive of the articles taken from the steamer, which may be estimated at 10s."

—The above abridged sketch, by no means eminent as a piece of writing (for, indeed, many fine phrases and poetical sentiments have purposely been retrenched from it), will not be unwelcome to those whom Mr. Albert Smith's little volume has stirred up to think "how good it is to climb,"—and who may like to contrast the Sicilian with the great Piedmontese mountain. We have therefore restricted ourselves to Etna; though the reader will find Mr. Watson reasonably pleasant, also, when describing the Festival and the car of *Santa Rosalia* at Palermo. For a touch of Della-Cruscan sentimentality the title-page will prepare all who enter on this book,—but it is not flagrant enough to destroy the pleasure of the summer hour which may be given to the perusal.

The Fall of Nineveh and the Reign of Sennacherib, Chronologically Considered, with a View to the Re-adjustment of Sacred and Profane Chronology. By J. W. Bosanquet, Esq. Longman & Co.

THE first remark that will present itself to the mind of the reader of this book is, that it is premature—not, indeed, in its manner and in its learned and acute reasoning, but in its matter and substance. Had the author been content to wait the passage of a few years, or even of a few months, it is more than probable that some of his ingenious speculations would have been rendered needless, and some of his positions either confuted or confirmed. It is to be borne in mind, that we are yet merely on the threshold as regards historical information of a most au-

thentic character,—and that Mr. Layard, Col. Rawlinson, and Dr. Hincks have only just commenced the discoveries which they seem destined to make from the bas-reliefs and inscriptions obtained from the ruins of Nineveh and Khorsabad. This point could not fail to have occurred to Mr. Bosanquet,—and on his very first page he says, "much light may be expected daily to be thrown upon the early history and chronology of the chosen people by the researches of archaeologists amongst both Egyptian and Assyrian monuments." As to Assyrian monuments, no one can visit the British Museum without seeing that volumes yet remain to be deciphered and published,—and that when they are deciphered and published, much will be reduced to certainty which is now little better than doubt and conjecture.—At page 57 the author tells us.—

"While we are endeavouring to determine the time of the reign of Sennacherib from the faint, though at the same time generally faithful, records of ancient history, it is an interesting fact, that the annals of this king are now, after a lapse of more than 2500 years, being recovered from his own palace and other places about ancient Nineveh, in all the freshness of the day on which they were written. There can be little doubt that, within a few years from this time, we shall know as much of the date and history of Sennacherib, king of Assyria, as we now know of the reign of William the Conqueror of England. The chamber of records in his palace has been laid open by Mr. Layard, the floor of which he found strewn with baked tiles, covered with inscriptions in the minutest characters, written, as it were, with the point of a diamond, recording, it is said, the decrees and expeditions of the kings who inhabited that palace."

—What, then, is Mr. Bosanquet's inference?—that "we may ere long be able to fix with mathematical precision the whole chronology of the Assyrian Empire." If so, might it not, we repeat, have been well to wait until his materials were more ample and complete? The readers of the *Athenæum* are well aware, from the letters which we published in the years 1851 and 1852, of Mr. Bosanquet's peculiar qualifications for the task which he has undertaken; but he would have written with greater advantage, and been read with more profit, if he had paused in order to avail himself of the results of the investigations now making by Oriental philologists.

We do not well understand Mr. Bosanquet, perhaps, when he laments that the abilities of certain individuals "have not been enlisted on behalf of the public in laying open the unexplored matter which has been accumulated in the British Museum." We may not know to what, nor to whom, Mr. Bosanquet here alludes; for we cannot believe that the services of any persons capable of all elucidating the dark subject of the cuneiform inscriptions on the Nineveh sculptures in our national depository have been declined by the authorities presiding over it. It seems indubitable that Col. Rawlinson, for instance, who has read so much, will soon be able to read more; and everybody supposes that, whatever may be his other duties, Mr. Layard's assistance in this respect will be sought and appreciated. Of the services already rendered by Col. Rawlinson, in reference to one important point of Scripture history, our author thus speaks.—

"Within the last year, a most important addition to our knowledge of Assyrian history has been made by Colonel Rawlinson, who has deciphered the annals of Sennacherib, king of Assyria, from the marbles of Nineveh. In one short passage of these annals, is contained a synchronism of the greatest value in determining the date of that reign. By means of this passage, coupled with what Herodotus says of Sennacherib and Sathos, we are enabled to connect together definite points of Assyrian, Judean, Tyrian, and Egyptian history, in one particular year, the date of which we shall be able to establish with perfect

clearness. The passage referred to, synchronizes the third year of Sennacherib in Nineveh, the fourteenth of Hezekiah in Jerusalem, the last of Ithuleus in Sidon."

The position which Mr. Bosanquet maintains from first to last is, the general accuracy of the dates furnished in the Old Testament; and he naturally falls foul of Niebuhr for placing too great reliance on the representations of profane writers. He observes:—

"Niebuhr's insight into history, where it pleased him to investigate, is truly wonderful, and his conclusions must ever be received with the greatest respect. He was, however, deficient in reverence for the holy Scriptures, at least till late in life, and has not cared to cultivate that noble field of ancient history. * * His views of history and chronology are altogether taken from a pagan point of view."

Nevertheless Mr. Bosanquet adopts the motto for his volume from Niebuhr; but his own view of the value of the Scriptures as a source of historical information is stated in a single sentence.—

"It is a fact, which I am satisfied will one day be recognized, that the Hebrew Scriptures contain a system of chronology, from the date of the birth of Christ upwards, for a thousand years, if not for a considerably longer period, more perfect than can be drawn from the records of any heathen nation whatever, at least as they are at present understood."

The manner in which the author works out and maintains this position deserves great praise for learning and ability:—and the whole work shows the high attainments of the author. When his materials shall, as we have said, be improved, both in quantity and in quality, by what may be termed the pending disclosures of existing sculptures, deposited both in London and in Paris, much may be expected from him. We shall watch the Biblical illustrations which he may derive from these sources with great interest.

History of the Insurrection in China; with Notices of the Christianity, Creed, and Proclamations of the Insurgents. By MM. Callery and Yvan. Translated from the French, with a Supplementary Chapter, narrating the most recent Events, by John Oxenford. With a Fac-simile of a Chinese Map of the Course of the Insurrection, and a Portrait of Tiên-tè, its Chief. Smith, Elder & Co.

NANKIN has fallen!—such was the form of an express which a few weeks ago confirmed to the general public the rumours that a civil war more deadly than that of La Vendée or that of the rival Roses existed in the heart of China. Merchants trading with Canton had heard of troubles in the poor and thinly-peopled districts of the Kouang Si. At first, the actors in these troubles were robbers:—then, they rose into dignity as rebels. But who they were, what their resources, what their object, no one knew. An obscure person, calling himself a descendant of the old Ming dynasty—and about as formidable apparently on that account as the French barber who boasted of his descent from Charlemagne, or the English toll-keeper in whom Mr. Long found the last issue of a royal line—was the pretended head of the movement; but this person was caught, caged, and sent to Peking,—where he confessed his sins and suffered the penalties of treason. At least, to that effect it was reported in official documents by boastful Mandarins. The Peking Gazette declared again and again that the robbers were exterminated. Some of the imperial generals lost their heads for not crushing them at first,—others were rewarded for having crushed them at last. The imperial Gazette, however, like imperial gazettes nearer home, enjoyed a suspicious reputation; and being interpreted by any rule rather than that of faith, its European readers

in Canton and in Hong Kong were exceedingly doubtful whether there were any longer troubles in the interior or not.

At length facts spoke in their own unambiguous and emphatic language. Nankin fell into the power of the robbers and rebels,—Nankin, the Moscow of China, the ancient metropolis of the empire, the centre of its arts, fashions, polity and pleasure. The intelligence startled Europe as well as China. Nankin is still the intellectual and commercial capital of the empire. It is the residence of the men of letters, the men of science, the dancers, painters, sculptors, jugglers, antiquaries, physicians, poets, players, courtisans,—in fact, of all the motley elements of Chinese life. The schools of art, science, pleasure—for pleasure is an art in China—are located at Nankin. The rich live there from choice, the industrious from necessity. In a political sense, the city is the key of the empire; for it blocks the Grand Canal by which the productions of the south are transported to Peking,—and commands the great artery of Chinese commerce, the river Yangtse Kiang. When there was one emperor at Peking and another at Nankin, fulminating and counter-fulminating—the old dynasty appealing to the Western powers on the ground of established right,—the new, claiming their neutrality in a quarrel impossible for them to understand,—it was time for Europe to inquire into the matter, and endeavour, even with its imperfect lights, to find out its own duty in regard to the civil war.—Fears about the failure of tea-crops, a desire to circumvent imaginary intrigues, and the instinctive impulse to take part in every "row," were leading more than one Power to think of helping to put down the insurgents. England had been at Nankin before, and would have been at the gates of Peking in a few weeks had not the Mandarins submitted to her terms. The same war-steamer might have gone there again; and at this very time might have been there had not the strange intelligence arrived that the insurgent chiefs were idol-breakers, Christians, and even Protestants. This consideration stayed the action of the Christian powers. We determined to be neutral; and the two emperors, Celestial Virtue, the new sovereign, and Complete Abundance, the Tartar ruler, are left to fight the matter out between themselves.

Of the rise, progress and present state of this singular insurrection, MM. Callery and Yvan have written, and Mr. Oxenford has translated into English, an interesting account. First of all, we must bring before our readers the portraits of the two competitors for empire—for the absolute mastery over a third part of the human race:—precedence being given to the one born in the purple, Complete Abundance (Hiên-foung),—who is chiefly remarkable for being always in want of money.—

"The chief competitors in this great struggle are two young men scarcely out of their boyhood. The Emperor Hiên-foung is only twenty-two years of age. He is of a middle height, and his form indicates great aptitude for bodily exercises. He is slender and muscular. His face, which indicates a certain degree of resolution, is chiefly characterized by a very high forehead, and by an almost defective obliquity of the eyes. His cheek bones are very prominent, and strongly marked. The space between the eyes is large and flat, like the forehead of a buffalo. Hiên-foung is of a stubborn and credulous disposition. In the midst of the most effeminate luxury he affects severity of morals, and notwithstanding his youth, he is already married. The Empress is a Tartar princess, with large feet, totally devoid of that delicacy and fragile gracefulness which belong to the small-footed Chinese women. The Emperor loves to see her perform the violent exercises which are the delight of the women of her nation, and she often gallops about with him in the extensive gardens of

the palace. Tiên-tè, the chief of the insurrection, is not above twenty-three years of age; but study and want of rest have made him prematurely old. He is grave and melancholy, leads a very retired life, and only communicates with those about him when he gives his orders. His face is expressive of mildness, but it is a mildness peculiar to certain ascetics, and which neither excludes firmness nor that obstinacy belonging to persons of strong religious convictions. His complexion, which borders on the colour of saffron, is that of the Chinese of the southern provinces. In stature he is taller than Hiên-foung; but he appears less robust. Both of them have been influenced by their education; and their moral are indicated by their physical qualities. The young Emperor, easy in his movements, and with firmness in his glance, has an aspect of haughty command, and requires blind obedience. Tiên-tè, on the other hand, has a fixed gaze, which seems to penetrate into the depths of the human soul, and to unmask all its designs. He commands rather by suggestions than by directly giving orders. In a word, he has the taciturn reserve of a man who has long reflected before he has made any one the confidant of his projects."

Tiên-tè (Celestial Virtue) has married no less than thirty wives; a fact which is rather an expression of Chinese than of Christian virtue. "Complete Abundance" has the further claim on our attention that he is a poet; though we are given to suppose by MM. Callery and Yvan that if his verses were sent to our columns his imperial majesty would take no higher place there than that accorded to the Poets of the Million. While his generals were beaten one after another—we quote the words of our authors,—

"The 'Son of Heaven' passed much of his time in trifling amusements, surrounded by his favourites and a few courtiers; who were, perhaps, plotting his death. Strange to say, he amused himself in writing a poem on the lofty deeds of the Tartar general. We have read some of the poetic lucubrations of the young Emperor. They give evidence of a mind which, having little invention of its own, uses the imagination of others; every line awakening a reminiscence of the classic authors of the Celestial Empire; the Chinese Homers, the Aristos of Peking, furnished the imperial poet with most of his bombastic lines."

Celestial Virtue, either mistrusting or misliking the Muses, avoided poetry; but he greatly scandalized the lovers of ancient etiquette by sitting to an artist for his portrait,—which portrait being done to his taste, like that of a newer Emperor nearer home, has been scattered far and wide. It has been engraved for the volume now before us. Our authors, we should say, are pretty neutral about the vexed question of the religious opinions of the insurgents—we beg pardon of our High Church contemporaries, we mean "the patriots;"—but it is noticeable as evidence on the point that this "brother of Jesus Christ" has adopted a pagan name and professes the most liberal of polygamical sentiments.

That there is some element of religious fanaticism in the insurgent camp, there seems good reason to believe; but its exact nature and the extent to which it influences the leading men, are problems for the solution of which there are at present no sufficient data. MM. Callery and Yvan see ground for believing that no part of the Catholic population of China has yet gone over to the insurrection:—and the Missionary enterprises of the Reformed Churches in the far East would seem to have been too slight to produce effects of importance enough to be considered by rebel leaders. An explanation is put forth on this subject by our authors, as follows:—of course, in reproducing their story in our columns we are not to be considered as adopting it.—

"If we can trust certain malicious informants, the

Rev. Dr. Gutzlaff travelled for a long time, with a Bible in one hand and a yard measure in the other, distributing Bibles and selling cloth, on the most equitable terms; and that, in this fashion, he went through Java, Siam, the Archipelago of Chusan, and the islets in the neighbourhood of Corea and Japan. Be that as it may, he has left us accounts of his travels, which, on the whole, are very pleasant reading. M. Gutzlaff had the art of inspiring the Chinese people with the greatest confidence. He was of a middle stature, and tolerably stout; his prominent eyes sparkled beneath thick lashes, which were overshadowed by long black and bushy eye-brows. His face, with features the reverse of angular, and its light olive complexion, seemed to belong to that variety of the human race which we call the Mongol. In his Chinese dress, he was so exactly like a native, that he could have gone through the streets of the walled city of Canton without being recognized. One evening, during our stay in China, we spoke of him to the mandarin Pan-se-tchen, who was much attached to him, and one of us expressed his astonishment at finding in a European the characteristics of the Chinese race. The mandarin quietly replied—'Nothing can be more natural. Gutzlaff's father was a native of the Fo-Kien settled in Germany.' This fact appears to us so extraordinary, that we should hesitate to relate it if Pan had not assured us that M. Gutzlaff himself was his authority. At all events, whether his origin was Chinese or not, M. Gutzlaff perfectly knew how to adapt himself to the ideas of a people who are at once sensual and mystical. He founded in China a sort of secret society called the 'Chinese Union,' the object of which was the conversion of the Chinese to Christianity by the Chinese themselves. When it was first known that the insurgents had in several places burnt the Buddhist statues, and overthrown the pagodas, it was thought that a number of Catholics had joined the rebels. At a later period the various Anglo-Chinese journals stated that a disciple of the artful Protestant missionary was the head of the band, whose zeal was displayed by the destruction of the monuments of idolatry."

There are other difficulties in the accounts: for example, we are not certain whether Celestial Virtue (Tien-tè) is a man or a myth. MM. Callery and Yvan say that he is alive,—Mr. Meadows says that he is dead. In one statement Taeping is the chief of the insurrection,—in another Tien-tè:—in one Tien-tè is only twenty-three years old,—in a second he is made to be the father of Taeping, who is said to be about forty. Mr. Oxenford is of opinion that Taeping is the real mover of the insurrection—a sort of absolute "mayor of the palace,"—while poor Celestial Virtue is only a plaything in his hands. These statements we leave as we find them.

About the reigning Emperor information is more readily obtained. His father was a Chinese reformer,—a copy at a distance of the reforming Sultan Mahmoud. In his youth, he had given proofs of courage and readiness of mind in unexpected and perilous circumstances. The facts are a good illustration of the way in which Chinese conspiracies are conducted.—

"The Emperor Kia-king was a weak incapable man, completely governed by those around him. An unworthy favorite reigned in his name. This person, who was named Lin-king, was the chief eunuch of the palace. Instances of this kind are not rare in the annals of the court of China. The chief of the eunuchs has always great influence in the intrigues of the palace, and according to the strange ideas of the country, his personal defect is no obstacle to his ambition. The authority of Lin-king was boundless. He disposed of every office. The highest functionaries, the ministers, and even the imperial family, bowed before him. Nor did this lofty position satisfy him. The indirect exercise of power emboldened to desire the sovereign authority for himself, and he began to open a path to the throne by gaining over the greater part of the military mandarins. This conspiracy was conducted with so much secrecy, that no one at the Court of Peking suspected it in the least. One

day, when the Emperor was hunting with his sons, Lin-king introduced into the capital those troops whose chiefs he knew were entirely devoted to him, and the soldiers were disposed about the environs of the palace. The plan of the first eunuch was to kill the Emperor and the princes of the imperial family, and to have himself immediately proclaimed by the army, whose chiefs he had secured. Towards the evening the Emperor returned to the palace without mistrust, accompanied by his eldest son, and followed by his usual cortege of civil and military mandarins. Scarcely was the great portal closed behind him than Lin-king gave the signal to his cohorts, who at once surrounded the palace, and guarded every outlet. In the hurry of this critical moment, the first eunuch had not observed that the second son of Kia-king was not returned from the chase with his father. When the conspiracy had already broken out, the prince returned to Peking alone. He was in a hunting dress, and wore none of the insignia of royalty; he could therefore traverse the city without being recognised. The greatest agitation already prevailed in the principal quarter, and he only required a moment's reflection to perceive the cause of the tumult, and to divine the purpose for which the troops had surrounded the palace. By the aid of his plain costume, he passed through the people, who were in an excited and disorderly state, and reached the very focus of rebellion. The first eunuch had left the palace to harangue his partisans, and the prince could now see that the favourite, whose insolence had so often angered him, was at the head of the rebellion. He approached still nearer, unobserved among the throng of troopers, and although he was quite alone among so many enemies he did not for an instant lose his courage or his presence of mind. Tearing off the round metal buttons which adorned his dress, to use them as bullets, he loaded the fowling-piece which he carried in his belt, and taking a short aim at the chief eunuch, shot him dead on the spot. The troops were thrown into disorder. The soldiers threw down their arms and fled, and all the partisans of Lin-king dispersed, to escape the chastisement they had deserved. The prince returned triumphant into the imperial residence, the threshold of which had not been profaned by the rebels, and the old Kia-king learned his danger and his deliverance at the same time."

In almost every action between the imperialists and the insurgents the former are worsted. Few of our readers are likely ever to have seen a real Chinese army, though most of us have seen a thing on the stage which our authors tell us is very much like the original. They write:—

"A Chinese army looks like a military array on the stage. The foot soldiers are dressed in red socks trimmed with white, having on the bosom and in the centre of the back a piece of white calico, on which the name of the regiment to which they belong is inscribed in huge characters. They wear on their heads a conical cap, striped with various colours, and are armed with a wretched matchlock. The horsemen, of whom there is a very small number in the imperial army, are mounted on lean, ill-harnessed jades, and wrapped up in long blue robes. In this strange attire they look much more like Musselman women on a journey than the Tartar heroes whom our fathers saw in the opera of 'Lodoiska.'"

Recent tidings from China seem to favour the idea that the conquerors in this civil war are likely, with a few changes, to settle down in the old political forms. MM. Callery and Yvan think otherwise. They affect to see a great mystery in the matter. They are of opinion that China will be dismembered, and that the component parts will form a confederation of States like the old German empire. It may be so; but as we are less inclined to speculate on the future than our lively neighbours, we refrain from discussing the subject.

This book can scarcely fail to find a curious and interested public.

Preliminary Steps to the Study of the Endowment of the Mind. By Nathaniel Ogle Harrison.

MYSTICISM and materialism are the Scylla and Charybdis which Mr. Ogle has striven to avoid. This he thinks he has accomplished by drawing a distinction between the functions and the faculties of the mind, and pointing out how they co-operate to the fulfilment of the ends of our being. That we may not misrepresent him, we give his own explanation of the above distinction.—

"A function of the mind appears to be a power implanted in its nature, limited to one particular office, to be capable of being brought instantaneously into action, and never after, during health, failing to perform the duty required of it. Upon the existence of the functions depend those primary truths which constitute the foundation of reasoning. Some of the functions are single, immutable, relating to the qualities of material objects, others are constituents of, antecedents, or sequents to faculties. The functions are necessary to enable the faculties to use the intellectual processes which lead to conclusions. The immutable and single functions are those which relate to essential qualities of matter, form, space, arrangement, number, colour, time, temperature, hard, soft; thus magnitude and form once acquired, are ever after considered as constituents of space and substance. Those that relate directly to the individual self, as consciousness, sensation, power of thinking. Those which are used when required, and under certain states of mind, and are constituents of certain faculties, as attention, will, memory. As soon as the mind uses its powers on any object, it becomes conscious of two things, one self, the other something different from self, therefore (as before mentioned) it is received as a fundamental belief, that there is a material creation, and a mind adapted to contemplate its phenomena. If functions were not given to us by which we could satisfy ourselves of forms, space, time, arrangement, number, colour, temperature, hard, soft, we could never obtain any direct knowledge of those phenomena. All the other faculties, either separately or combined, could never lead us to any truth without them. They are in their nature separate and immutable, and generally applicable. An acknowledgment of form indicates neither temperature nor softness; every form must be in some space, and at a definite time; if there be more than one, there must be arrangement and number, all forms must have colour, all matter temperature, and be either hard or soft, or some modification of those qualities. When once the function is awakened by the material quality adapted to it, neither confusion nor error ever ensue. The function for temperature never mistakes its duty with that of number nor that of space; or time with either hard or soft, or arrangement. Faculties may employ them, but in themselves they never vary. Functions are each limited, either to the external facts, or the internal subjects to which they are adapted. Faculties vary each as to the objects on which they are employed. The reasoning power varies in accordance with the motive and will: the power of imagining embraces a great variety of subjects, and every other faculty in the same way, and usually under the influence of the will. The functions vary only in degree."

We must confess this appears to us neither clear nor satisfactory. To speak of functions as given us, as employed by the faculties, and as never mistaking their duty, is, to say the least, altogether unusual. In another place these functions are said to be awakened, in which case, we are told, they "irresistibly lead to infer future results from past experience." Had not Mr. Ogle taken pains to assert the indivisible unity of the mind in a chapter on that subject, we should have been almost led to imagine from such expressions as these that he looked upon the functions as active powers forming constituent parts, so to speak, of the mind. We have looked in vain for any clear account of what he considers to be faculties as distinguished from functions. In fact, it is not easy to under-

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stand his meaning at any time; for his expressions are both indefinite in themselves and clumsily put together, as the above quotation shows. Even his professed definitions are sadly wanting in distinctness and precision. For instance, what are we to make of this?—"Reasoning is a complex mental phenomenon, which presupposes intention, and which is never brought into action without the consciousness of a definite subject." The great bulk of what we are able to comprehend in the book is common-place and superficial. Among other novelties, we find it gravely stated that impressions are not made on the retina of the blind or the tympanum of the deaf;—in other words, that the blind do not see nor do the deaf hear,—which we certainly needed no ghost to tell us. We have only to add, that the grammatical accuracy of the work matches with its philosophical worth. What appear from the punctuation to be sentences, are in fact often not sentences at all, but mere isolated clauses. Phrases also occur which are quite at variance with the usage of good writers.

The British Cabinet in 1853.

[Fifth Notice.]

No member of the Cabinet inherits a nobler patronymic than the Secretary-at-War. The name of SIDNEY HERBERT at once calls up to any well-educated Englishman many proud recollections,—and it has especial interest for ourselves as being honourably associated with "Literature and Art." The family of Herbert has a most ancient origin; and its long pedigree has been illustrated by the lives of many famous persons, to whom the pens of poets and historians have given a nobler and more lasting fame than can be gained from the ingenuity of Garter King-at-Arms or of Rouge Dragon. Like others of the really great old English families, the Herberts require none of that flattery which so often disfigures our books of reference on the 'Peerage.' Of such fallacious compilers Burke (Edmund) has well remarked:—

"These historians, recorders, and blazoners of virtues and arms, differ wholly from that other description of historians, who never assign any act of politicians to a good motive. These gentle historians, on the contrary, dip their pens in nothing but the milk of human kindness; they seek no further for merit than the preamble of a patent, or the inscription of a tomb: with them, every man created a peer, is first an hero ready made; they judge of every man's capacity for office by the offices he has filled; and the more offices the more ability. Every general officer with them is a Marlborough; every statesman a Burleigh; every judge a Murray or a Yorke. They, who, alive, were laughed at, or pitied by all their acquaintance, make as good a figure as the best of them in the pages of Gwillim, Edmondson, and Collins."

It is time that the histories of our great families were recorded in authentic shape,—and that something of æsthetic and philosophical interest were imparted to the history of houses with moral associations. Those interested in the history of "Art" in England would naturally feel a kindly bias towards a family like that of Herbert, which patronized an Inigo Jones, and whose various members have left us an example of true aristocratic magnificence,—as can be seen in the splendid Wilton, with its famous statues collected by the eighth Earl of Pembroke, and its architectural glories increased by the elegant designs of the ninth Earl. Lovers of "Literature," also, must feel interest about a family which in several successive generations has won panegyrics from Camden and Clarendon, from Ben Jonson and Lord Orford, and some of whose generations, kith or kin, have illustrated literature itself. Who amongst our readers can have forgotten the sweetest and

most earnest of our religious poets, George Herbert?—and even his brother of Cherbury has a pleasant place in our memories. It can with truth be said, that the love of the Good and the Fair is an hereditary quality with the Herberts. We once heard an excellent person, now no more, characterize the leading families of England, associating each of them with some predominating qualities:—as, "the public spirit of the Russells"—the "enlightened Cavendishes"—the "amiable and virtuous Howards"—the "haughty Percys." He went on to "the Stanleys, with their chivalric energy,"—"the Campbells (Argyll) and their patriot valour"—"the Stanhopes, with their courtly qualities,"—"the Beresfords, with their physical beauty,"—"the Bentincks, with their plodding energy," and so on. We thought his classification of family characters too conjectural and arbitrary,—but it was supported with great ingenuity; and we perfectly recollect his speaking of "the Herberts and their princely tastes." There was a time in our history when the word "princely tastes" would have been a worse than ambiguous compliment; but our lamented friend explained his use of the adjective which he assigned to the Herberts "as being in a purely *Prince Albertian* sense." We were reminded of the circumstance when travelling some time since through Ireland. We asked a Paddy, "What sort of character his landlord, Mr. Sidney Herbert, bore?" and we marked the reply—"Wisha, yer honour, he's just a *rale prince*, and may he live all the days of his life, and whin they are over, may he begin again!" As an Irish landlord, Mr. Sidney Herbert may graduate with the Duke of Devonshire, the Marquis of Lansdowne, and the Earl of Derby.

It is pleasant to find these good qualities in one bearing the glorious name of "Sidney,"—in itself a title that will always stir an English heart. What a volume of historic memories flash across the mind, as we read of the second Earl of Pembroke marrying the next sister of Lady Jane Grey, and afterwards uniting himself to the sister of Sir Philip Sidney, whose 'Arcadia' is inscribed to the Countess of Pembroke. Cold, indeed, would the heart of any member of the house of Pembroke be, who could read without emotion the lines of Ben Jonson:—

Underneath this marble hearse,
Lies the subject of all verse—
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother.
Death, ere thou hast claimed another,
Wise, and fair, and good as she,
Time shall throw a dart at thee.

No Englishman with a love of country could fail to find very sweet music in such poetry while strolling under the old oaks at Penshurst, or gazing on the classic illustrations at Wilton. It is curious that such lines should never have been inscribed on the tomb of the lady for whom they were written,—but they are stamped in the memories of all who ever read or heard them.

Among the illustrations of the Herberts connected with "Art," we will select the following character of the ninth Earl, from Horace Walpole:—

"The soul of Inigo Jones, who had been patronized by his ancestors, seemed still to hover over its favourite Wilton, and to have assisted the Muses of Arts in the education of this noble person. The towers, the chambers, the scenes, which Holbein, Jones, and Vandyke had decorated, and which Earl Thomas had enriched with the spoils of the best ages, received the last touches of beauty from Earl Henry's hand. He removed all that obstructed the views to or from his palace, and threw Palladio's theatrical bridge over his river: the present Lord has crowned the summit of the hill with the equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius, and a handsome arch designed by Sir William Chambers. No man had a purer taste in building than Earl Henry, of which he gave a few

specimens besides his works at Wilton:—the New Lodge in Windsor Park; the Countess of Suffolk's house, at Marblehill, Twickenham; the Water-house in Lord Orford's Park, at Houghton, are incontestable proofs of Lord Pembroke's taste; it was more than taste, it was passion for the utility and honour of his country, that engaged his Lordship to promote and assiduously overlook the construction of Westminster Bridge, by the ingenious Monsieur Labeley, a man that deserves more notice than this slight encomium can bestow."

We expected a more interesting account of the Secretary-at-War than is given in this compilation called 'The British Cabinet.' We will extract its most readable passage, in which it glances at the *personnel* of Mr. Sidney Herbert. It says:—

"The Right Hon. Sidney Herbert, Secretary-at-War in the ministry of the Earl of Aberdeen, is son of the eleventh Earl of Pembroke, by his second wife, the only daughter of Simon, late Count Woronzow, and is half-brother and heir presumptive to the present Earl. The right honourable gentleman is now in the forty-third year of his age, having been born at Richmond in 1810. In 1846 he married a daughter of Major-General A'Court, C.B., of Amington Hall, Warwickshire, and niece of the first Lord Heytesbury. He is a deputy-lieutenant for Salop, Wilts, and Dublin, in all of which counties he has considerable landed property, and his seat is Wilton House, Wiltshire. Mr. Herbert has sat in the House of Commons as member for the county of Wilts from the year 1832, beginning public life as a Conservative, and a follower of the late Sir Robert Peel, to whom he faithfully and steadily adhered until the untimely death of that lamented statesman. Since that period he has usually acted in concert with those members of the House of Commons known as the 'Peelite' section of that House, and whom he, with Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Cardwell, and one or two more, represents in the Government of Lord Aberdeen. As a debater, the right honourable gentleman rises above the ordinary level of the orators of the House of Commons. His style of speaking is smooth and even, very correct, always pleasing, and set off with the polished manners and address of a well-educated English gentleman. But his speeches, though smart and generally clever, are never remarkable for any great display of the faculty of thought. He seldom strikes out new ideas upon a subject, though successful in representing recognised truths in the most acceptable point of view. The House listens to him respectfully; but the occasions are few and far between when it is moved to relax its habitual rigidity to give him more than the approving 'Hear, hear.' The 'vehement cheering' of stout country gentlemen, which meets the eye of the reader of Mr. D'Israeli's orations; the 'roars of laughter' excited by Mr. Bernal Osborne's witticisms, or Mr. Henry Drummond's quaintness; and the 'loud cheers and laughter' which follow some brilliant repartee of Lord Palmerston, are not often to be found in Mr. Herbert's speeches. * * Outside the walls of Parliament Mr. Sidney Herbert has distinguished himself by his efforts in favour of educating the poor in the principles of the Established Church. He has also endeavoured to extend the sphere of operations, and increase the utility of that Church in our Colonial possessions. And he is honourably known to the public, in connexion with his amiable lady, by liberal benefactions to charitable objects, and the active part he has taken in alleviating the distressed condition of the needlewomen and servant classes of the metropolis, and promoting their emigration to the Australias."

In lately turning over some very dull correspondence relating to Warren Hastings, we were struck with the following emphatic sentence from Lord Thurlow:—"I have seen the most eloquent speakers in the House of Commons struck dumb by—a fact,"—a sentiment which probably Mr. Canning heard of when he once said—"That he knew nothing so sublime as a fact." The orator did not add, whether in his idea of "the sublime" he meant the vastness of effect produced by a fact, or the extreme rarity of getting one amid the wordy war in St. Stephen's.

Well, here is what we believe to be "a fact" about Mr. Sidney Herbert,—but of course we are open to correction on the point. We have heard from more than one source, that there was no member of the old aristocracy of England for whom the late Sir Robert Peel entertained so much respect as Mr. Sidney Herbert. How often have we ourselves seen, in the chill morning dawn, the late statesman, after some great party debate, walk slowly across Palace Yard, the erect collar of his blue surtout up to his ears, leaning on Mr. Sidney Herbert, towards that home at which many a toilworn consumer of bread—"the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with the sense of injustice"—gazes with fond regard as "Sir Robert's"! The fact of being a chosen friend of Peel may save Mr. Sidney Herbert from an outpouring of "the cant of criticism," upon his political career. No doubt he wants *vidua vis animi*, and is too much *homme de salon*. He is too sentimental to be sturdy in debate, too æsthetic to be vigorous in action. He cannot generalize his views with the inductive logic and laconic felicity of Lord John Russell,—he cannot intimidate a long row of clamorous adversaries, like Mr. Disraeli, with a frown and an invective,—he never could bully a troublesome opponent, while affecting merely to banter, like Lord Palmerston,—nor can he guide the understanding, in the mazes of subtle argument, with the ingenuity of Mr. Gladstone. But he can bring to whatever party he joins the weight of a great English name, gloriously won and honourably worn,—he can point to a life authenticating descent from the worthies of other days,—he can appeal not alone to the eulogies on ancestors immortalized by classic pens,—but to the suffrages of humble cottagers, Celts and Saxons, telling with homely and moving eloquence of gratitude for virtues that bring honour to patrician rank, and of deeds that call forth the affections of the heart. It cannot be too often urged that *moral* qualities are as essential to the right ruling of mankind as the best intellectual faculties. An Aristocracy, if fertile in examples of virtue, might bid defiance to the leveller; and if Nobility is to bear a part in our mixed Constitution, the character of its leading members must be of incalculable importance. So, inheriting a renowned name, himself illustrating it by high personal qualities, and stamped with the decisive approbation of Peel,—Mr. Sidney Herbert may challenge even hostile criticism to impeach his claims to a seat in the Cabinet.

No member of this Cabinet can point to a more brilliant connexion with "Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts" than EARL GRANVILLE, the President of the Privy Council. His exertions in contributing to the success of the Crystal Wonder of 1851 have been too often commemorated in our columns to need our detailed illustration here. We therefore prefer allowing another pen to describe (however inadequately) the invaluable aid given on that occasion by Lord Granville. The compiler tells us—

"Granville George Leveson Gower, the second Earl Granville, and now President of the Council, was born in 1815, and is consequently now in his thirty-eighth year. His father was a younger brother of the first Duke of Sutherland, and having been early engaged in the diplomatic service, was by the Grey ministry in 1833 raised to the peerage, under the title which his son now enjoys. For a long time the first Earl Granville was our minister at Paris, and the present earl was for some time an *attaché* to the embassy. He commenced public life in 1837, when he was returned member of Parliament for the borough of Morpeth."

The mother of Lord Granville, it might have been remarked, was the daughter of William, fifth Duke of Devonshire, by his first

Duchess—the celebrated "Georgiana,"—a lady of extraordinary fascinations and great mental endowments. The present Earl of Carlisle is another grandson of the celebrated Duchess of Devonshire; and the family of the Egertons, so associated with the great inland navigation triumphs of the last century, is intertwined in the genealogical stem with the house of Gower, from which Lord Granville descends. We should expect much from families several of whose members have distinguished themselves by important contributions to social utility and to "science," as in the case of the Egertons and the Cavendishes. In vain would the *Heralds' College* pretend to give such illustration to any family as Cuvier has conferred on the name of Cavendish. Speaking of the great chemist (son of Lord Charles Cavendish, and grandson of the second Duke of Devonshire), the illustrious naturalist has said,—“Whatever the sciences revealed to Mr. Cavendish, appeared always to exhibit something of the sublime and marvellous; he weighed the earth, he rendered the air navigable, he deprived water of the quality of an element, and he denied to fire the character of a substance.” And Sir Humphry Davy has added,—“Since the death of Newton England has sustained no such loss as that of Cavendish; his name will be an immortal honour to his house, to his age, and to his country.” In an age of "utility" and of material development, it is right that wealth should be giving a direction towards the Beautiful, that the "Arts" should be munificently fostered, and that Fashion itself should be coaxed in her airy caprices to seek the graceful along with the novel. Popular opinion may thus be guided towards demanding in our streets, our bridges, and our great public buildings a closer attention to architectural beauty. In bringing about this desirable consummation, we might anticipate that great territorial proprietors would contribute by their example; and it is only justice to remark, that families which can point to a "Chatsworth," with its singular blending of the Beautiful and the Useful, a "Bridge-water House," a "Stafford Gallery," and similar noble investments of princely fortunes, have done much to lead the taste in the right direction. Mr. Coleridge used to say, that England was ruled by "a plutocracy," and not by an aristocracy; but we are happy to think that we see many signs of wealth and fashion acquiring loftier aspirations and purer tendencies than in former periods. Nor can there be any doubt that the "Palace of Industry" of 1851 has had its ample effect in quickening the growth of a desire for the Beautiful. Of Lord Granville's share in the labours of those who reared that triumph of taste and talent the compiler says:—

"Of this commission, eminent as it was in members renowned for statesmanship, science, and art, Earl Granville was one, and, in compliment both to his office and to his own talents, he was made chairman of the executive committee. His exertions in the preparatory meetings that were held were extraordinary. It is well known that for some time after the plan was first suggested there was a visible apathy and coldness manifested towards it on the part of the people, and at one time, for months together, it remained in suspense whether the Commissioners should not abandon the whole scheme in despair. At that time the exertions of Lord Granville were of the highest value in stimulating the flagging energies of those who were engaged in the task, and in endeavouring, through his official position at the Board of Trade, to create a feeling in its favour throughout the country."

Nothing can be more true than the following record of the mingled suavity and energy with which Lord Granville transacted affairs with the numerous persons of all nations with whom he was brought in contact.—

"Nor did his exertions cease when those early difficulties were removed. There came a time when the previous apathy was followed by a corresponding degree of enthusiasm. The people were at last thoroughly roused to regard it [sic] as one of national importance. The impulse was communicated to surrounding nations; and from all sides were communications offering suggestions, soliciting admission, or applying for room. It required no small amount of tact, ingenuity, and fertility in resource, to meet and satisfy the various claimants upon the attention of the Commissioners; but the attention, patience, and readiness of invention displayed by his Lordship were equal to the exigencies of the occasion; while the urbanity with which he listened to the various complaints, or the kindness with which he replied to them, were felt by more than one grumbler as ample satisfaction for all the grievances they came to complain of."

The promotion of Lord Granville from being Master of the Buckhounds to being Vice President of the Board of Trade caused many cynical remarks, which would not have been made if their authors had known the talent and accomplishments of the object of their small wit. The fact of holding a courtly office does not prove want of capacity for higher things in the possessor. The Duke of Wellington himself appeared in public as "Gold Stick in Waiting" to George the Fourth. Many of these courtly offices are but nominal in their duties; their only purpose, as Burke lucidly explained in his famous speech on "Economic Reform," is to supply the sovereign with companions of known character and independence. It was not surprising that Lord Granville, with his taste and knowledge, should be a courtier in the palace of a sovereign attached to that true glory which results from bloodless triumphs in "Literature, Science, and the Arts." We see the liberal disposition of Lord Granville very plainly in his act while at the Foreign Office of nominating Mr. Layard his Under Secretary of State,—thereby going out of official routine, and recognizing personal character and accomplishments as passports to public employment. The noble Lord has lately shown his practised intellect in at once recognizing the special talent for artistic illustration amongst the works of Irish industry. It is a mistake, however, to suppose that Lord Granville was the first person in authority to notice this fact:—it has, more than once, been emphatically alluded to and acknowledged by Lord Clarendon. This aptitude of the Irish for working well and rapidly on patterns of fanciful design is seen in the uncommon success of the embroidered muslin trade in Ireland,—and we have ourselves heard Belfast manufacturers some years since testify to the fact which Lord Granville has recently recorded.

Lord Granville's appearance in the Senate is thus described.—

"He is not a frequent speaker, nor does he indulge in prepared orations. He makes no pretensions to a high order of eloquence,—never indulges in flights of rhetoric,—seldom ventures upon a metaphor; but in a calm, clear, and level style, proceeds to expound his views. His strength lies in his good sense, in his sound judgment, in the perspicuity of his arguments, and in a graceful diction, with a clear and not unmusical voice, that lends a charm to his address. From the resources of a well-stored mind, enriched with extensive reading, digested by much thought and experience, he has always at his command abundance of illustrations; and when he rises, the listener may be sure of hearing the question fully discussed, the arguments of his opponents stated with fairness and met with moderation, and his own views urged with clearness, with power, and with ample illustrations drawn from the varied storehouse of history and experience."

At times, like other men of vigorous intellect and large acquirements, Lord Granville is not sufficiently conventional to please the red-tapists.

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When he knows little of a subject on which exigency compels him to speak, he does not take refuge behind a cloud of words. He frankly intimates the exact extent of his knowledge, and archly solicits his political adversaries to give him more information. But on subjects for which he is personally responsible, we are never disappointed in our expectation of Lord Granville's being fully prepared with digested details, and with the clear direct views which mark an administrator. The age in which we are living is many-sided; there is not that political antagonism which existed between parties in the last century. Principles are now evolved by the public mind through its own agencies; and what is most required in statesmen is, that they should be thoroughly versed in business, and masters of the facts of the questions inviting legislation. The effects produced by the late Mr. Deacon Hume's evidence before the "Imports Duties Committee" shows that in our politics as in everything else "Knowledge is Power."

It is pleasant to see persons born to wealth and ancient names not content merely with the inheritance of honours, but proving to mankind that they deserve to possess them. None but men of masculine faculties are fitted for the Ministerial burthen in our utilitarian times. The days of amateur statesmanship and holiday eloquence are past; and it is a good augury for the public weal of England to find men like Lord Granville and others strenuously devoted to public toil. Even a line in the future history of England (as that country is described by the living Laureate)—

A land of old and just renown,
Where Freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent,

—is a laurel worth struggling to deserve.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Money-penny; or, the Heart of the World. By Cornelius Mathews.—This "Money-penny" resembles nothing so much as a third-class masquerade, in which we find Jack Sheppards, Indian queens, melo-dramatic women of mystery, charming young beauties, figuring in some animated and vulgar dance neither the fun nor the figure of which can be relished by persons of taste. Mr. Cornelius Mathews has made a better appearance in former literary essays, if we mistake not;—but he must not for that reason escape if he writes a story like "Money-penny," in which all that is not stupid is disagreeable.

Essays on some of the Forms of Literature. By Thomas I. Lynch.—These four essays contain the substance of four lectures originally delivered at the Royal Institution, Manchester. The subjects are,—first, Poetry, its Sources and Influence,—second, Biography, Autobiography, and History,—third, Fiction and Imaginative Prose,—fourth, Criticism and Writings of the Day. The most quintessential of lecturers who could characterize a century by an epithet, demolish a false philosophy by an epigram, and "put a girdle" round a whole world of thought and fancy in the "forty minutes" allotted to him by an audience eager to receive instruction homoeopathically, or in the smallest imaginable space, would be puzzled to do justice to the table of contents drawn out above within the limits accepted. Mr. Lynch does his best to get through his task by trying to say deep things in a few words,—but his depth, if really profound, is not clear—his English, though poetical, sometimes is confused—and his illustrations, intended to be novel and original, are often injudiciously selected. In short, more care should have been given to the revision and extension of the spoken lectures ere they were committed to print than appears to have been afforded,—and the result is in proportion to the labour.

Chaplain's Twenty-ninth Report on the Preston House of Correction.—Mr. Clay's annual Report on a prison so wisely and philosophically administered as that of Preston—drawn up, as it ever

is, in a plain, sensible and practical way—is as interesting to the student of human nature in general as it is to the prison disciplinarian. In the careful notes here preserved we have some of the best data ever collected for a moral history of crime; and we know of scarcely any works of equal size which contain so much important matter in elucidation of the dark side of the "condition of England" question. What would the historian not give for a series of such reports at the date of the Commonwealth or at any other important period of our history? This year, however, we notice one omission of great interest:—we mean the stories of the prisoners' lives, those very instructive romances of reality.

Travels in Egypt and Palestine. By J. Thomas, M.D.—The author of this volume, an American, left New York, in February 1852, with the intention of making a tour through Egypt and the Holy Land, by Gibraltar. The first part of the book consists of a lengthened account of his sea voyages, and is not more remarkable for originality of description than for originality of subject. Almost the only novelty in these pages is, the description of some vast subterranean hall discovered, just before the author's arrival, near the site of the ancient Memphis, in Egypt. The greater part is of little interest; and so quickly and inefficiently does the author describe some of the spots which we would care most to hear about, that his letters resemble rather the jottings of a man desirous of getting through every day as fast as he can, than the luxuriant pictures of a pleasure-seeker in the East.

Excursions to Arran, Ailsa Craig, and the two Cumbraes, with reference to the Natural History of these Islands. By the Rev. David Landsborough, D.D.—When Dr. Landsborough writes on natural history—and he has done so rather extensively—he has many things to recommend him. He is a good naturalist, a good writer, and a good man. His writings would not be so popularly acceptable if he were a mere technical naturalist; and if he wrote on sea-weeds and shell-fish as many writers do who know nothing about them, they would soon be consigned to the limbo of forgetfulness. The only fault that we can find with him is, that he will occasionally in his best descriptions of animal or vegetable life begin to preach out of time and place. In these excursions we have an account of how a naturalist bent on a few days' relaxation amuses himself. We see him now seated on the roadside,—now chattering with the landlady of the wayside inn, and getting new laid eggs and pickled kipper for breakfast,—then he dashes into a plantation for new mosses, peeps into a well for conifers, turns up stones for land molluscs, works with his hammer at the mountain side for fossils, and takes boat for a dredge upon the sea. The unsentimental reader of this book can readily enter into the joyful feelings which the naturalist thus records,—and see that, after all, there is poetry where some men have put hard words, and that there are life and beauty in the forms and habits of creatures which some writers would make repulsive.—Dr. Landsborough has not carefully corrected his proofs, and the mis-spelling of scientific terms is frequent. Nor is there an index to the volume,—which every book on natural history ought to have.

Louis the Seventeenth; his Life, his Sufferings, his Death: the Captivity of the Royal Family in the Temple. By A. De Beauchêne.—In these two volumes, ranging in size and appearance with the translations of Lamartine, we have an English version of a very painful book. Our opinions on the work were expressed when the first French edition appeared: and there is nothing now to add beyond the announcement of a translation.

The Present Condition of Married Women in the Army: a Letter to the Right Hon. Sidney Herbert, Secretary at War. By Hugh Scott.—The wrong on which Mr. Scott writes is one of that painful kind which often exists for generations, through the shrinking delicacy of the public mind—conscious of a social sore existing but afraid to look at it in open day. The position of a soldier's wife, whether in camp or in barracks, is one that will not bear description; but surely that which may not be described should not be suffered to exist. Mr.

Scott is doing good work in agitating this question; though we doubt whether he is strictly logical,—if it be, indeed, his sober conviction that "armies are necessarily dissolute in morals." That they are generally so in fact, is not disputed; that they are so of "necessity" is an inference which, were it fully accepted, would arrest the reformer in his task and render reform a delusion.

Outlines of Literary Culture from a Christian Stand-point. By the Rev. B. Frankland.—Mr. Frankland seems to have had a notion of performing a task often undertaken, but—if this and other writers of his class are to be believed—never yet achieved,—"to reconcile science and religion." If all others have failed, Mr. Frankland has scarcely we think succeeded. His labours are dry and somewhat mystical, and for the most part commonplace and prosaic. With a promising subject in hand, light, graceful, anecdotal, he has contrived to preach as dull a sermon as ever tried the patience of "those young friends" who are made to answer for the appearance of so much literary waste paper.

Six Dramas of Calderon. Freely translated by E. Fitzgerald.—"Freely translated," says Mr. Fitzgerald. There is no doubt of it. By way of apology for so much licence—for a freedom in dealing with his text so unusual—the translator gives an original reason:—"I have not meddled," he says, "with any of Calderon's more famous plays, not one of these on my list being mentioned with any praise or included in any selection that I know of except the homely Mayor of Zalamea." We have not taken the trouble to compare these translations with the originals; holding it quite unnecessary to treat as a serious work a book whose author confesses that he "has sunk, reduced, altered and replaced much that seemed not fine or efficient—simplified some perplexities, and curtailed or omitted scenes that seemed to mar the breadth of general effect, supplying such omissions by some lines."

Popular Economic Botany. By Thomas Croxen Archer.—The Great Exhibition of 1851 was marvellously suggestive, and will undoubtedly for years to come produce an impression on the literature of science. This little work has been executed by Mr. Archer, who, we are informed, was the collector of Liverpool imports at that Exhibition. The various vegetable products which passed through his hands suggested to him the idea of a popular treatise in which the uses of the vegetable kingdom to man should be set forth. The plan adopted has been, to arrange the various substances obtained from plants into those which are used for food, for manufactures, in medicine, and for construction. Each plant mentioned is illustrated by a coloured representation of the same kind as those which accompany the other volumes of the series of popular works on natural history, published by Messrs. Reeve, of which this is one. These drawings are upwards of one hundred in number. They are of course small,—and on that account in many instances they fail to give quite a correct impression of the plants described. At the same time, a great quantity of information is here got together, useful to those who are anxious to obtain a knowledge of the important contributions of the vegetable kingdom to the necessities and comforts of human life.

We have on our table, and may dismiss with a word or two of characterization,—a readable report of *The Celebration of the One Hundred and Seventieth Anniversary of the Landing of William Penn in America*,—Parts II. and VII. of Mr. Darling's valuable *Cyclopaedia Bibliographica: a Library Manual of Theological and General Literature*,—*The King of Pride; or, the Rise and Progress of the Papal Power*, a volume made up of about twenty pages from Guicciardini, together with a long Preface and copious notes,—and *A Lecture on Popular Education and the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge*, originally delivered at a Mechanics' Institute by the Dean of Waterford.—We have also on our tables Parts VII. to X. of Mr. George Griffith's *Free Schools of Worcestershire*, with a statistical chart of their scholars, revenues, and privileges—a work which every Worcester patriot and politician should have at his elbow,—Mr. Francis Bashforth's *Observations on some Unit-*

versity Buildings, together with Remarks on the Management of the Public Library and Pitt Press, —Part VII. of a series of articles reprinted from 'The Hebrew Observer' on *Secular Education*, —a bellicose *Plea for our own Coast and our Cape Colony*, —the Rev. A. Lillie's *Canada: its Growth and Prospects*, —and the Rev. Charles Herbert's *Theological Colleges and the Universities; or, what special Training should be given to the future Clergy?*

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Abbott's (Rev. G. D.) New English Spelling-Book, 12mo. 6d. swd.
Akerman's (J. V.) Legends of Old London, post 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.
Another Book about Western Methodism, 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.
Bramhall's Truth Spoken in Love, or, Tractarianism refuted, 6s. cl.
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Campbell's Christian Baptism, with Antecedents and Consequences, 8vo. 4s. 6d. cl.
Cautions for the Times, edited by the Archbishop of Dublin, 7s. cl.
Chambers's Educational Course, 'Grammar of German Language, with Exercises, by C. E. Aust, 3s. 6d. cl.
Latin Exercises, with Selections for Reading, 2s. Drawing and Perspective, 'Mechanical Drawing, Books I. to III., 1s. 6d. each.
Chapman's Library for the People, 'Artist's Married Life, by Mrs. Stoddart, 12mo. 6d. swd.
Cheever's Cyclopædia of Moral and Religious Anecdotes, 8vo. 5s. cl.
Children and the Robin, Harriet Gray, and other Stories, 1s. 6d. cl.
Colonel (The) by the Author of 'Perils of Fashion,' 3 vols. 12. 11s. 6d. cl.
Crichton's (D. M. M.) Memoirs, by Rev. J. W. Taylor, 8vo. 5s. cl.
Domestic Commentary on the Old Testament, Vol. 1, 4to. 11s. 6d. cl.
Dickens's Bleak House, with Illustrations, by Browne, 8vo. 11s. cl.
Dickens's Household Words, Vol. 7, 8vo. 5s. 6d. cl.
Donaldson's (Dr.) Comparative Hebrew Grammar, 12mo. 3s. 6d. cl.
Four Gospels in Greek for the Use of Schools, Griebach's Text, 1s. 6d. cl.
Goldard's May Dundas, or, Passages in a Young Life, 6s. 3d. cl.
Hartwig's Practical Treatise on Sea Bathing and Sea Air, 8vo. 5s. cl.
Henderson's Homoeopathy Fairly Represented, 2nd edit., 3s. 6d. cl.
Hilbert's German-English and English-German Dictionary, 10s. cl.
Hugo's (V.) Rhine, trans. by D. M. Aldir, 8vo. 1s. 6d. swd.
Johnston's (Dr.) Natural History of Eastern Boreas, Vol. 1, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
Judson (Dr.) Memoirs of, by Francis Wayland, 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. cl.
Law and the Testimony, by Author of 'Wide, Wide World,' 2s. cl.
Lovelock's Elementary Anatomy, 2nd edition, 7s. 6d. cl.
Lynch's (T. W.) Lectures in aid of Self-Improvement, 8vo. 3s. cl.
Mackenzie's History of the Church of Christ until the Revolution of 1688, 2nd edition, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
Mason's Kate Geary; or, Irish Life in London, a Tale of 1840, 5s. cl.
Milton's Poetical Works, complete edition, with Engravings, 4s. 6d. cl.
Morgan's Raymond de Montfort, 3 vols. post 8vo. 11s. 6d. cl.
Nelson's Life, by Southey, Family Library Edition, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
New Week's Preparation for Lord's Supper, Parts I. and II., 1s. 6d. each.
New's (M. A. P.) Sacred and Miscellaneous Poetry, 12mo. 5s. cl.
Newman's (F. W.) History of the Hebrew Monarchy, 2nd ed., 6s. cl.
Parker's Sermons on Theism, Atheism, and Popular Theology, 9s. cl.
Parkhurst's (Fanny) Stepping-Stones to Roman History, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
Par's Medical and Surgical Dictionary, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
Paxton's Botanical Dictionary, new edition, 12mo. 12s. cl.
Pocket Library, Vol. 8, 'Minstrel and the Maid of Kent, by Capt. Curling, 12mo. 6d. cl.
Rawlston's (Rev. W. E.) Sermons, Vol. 2, 8vo. 6s. cl.
Reid's (Dr.) Essays on the Intellectual Powers, 6s. 3d. cl.
Rowbotham's Guide to the Corn Laws, 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
Rowe's Cab Fare, Act, additional Clauses, and Map, 6d. cl.
Ruff's Guide to the Turf, Autumn Supplement to, 12mo. 1s. cl.
Smith (John Fyfe) Memoirs of, by John Medway, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
Spiritual Library, 'Swedenborg's Future Life, 6s. 1s. 6d. cl.
Strickland's Lives of the Queens of Scotland, Vol. 4, 8vo. 12s. 6d. cl.
The City of London, 6 vols. royal, 1s. each. 11s. cl.
Taylor's Hippolytus and Christian Church of 3rd Century, 3s. 6d. cl.
Tweedie's Glad Tidings, or, the Gospel of Peace, 3s. 6d. cl.
Voyages round the World to the present Time, 6th edition, 4s. 6d. cl.
Wells on the Form of Cattle, 8vo. 1s. 6d. cl.
Wilson's Divine Architect; or, the Wonders of Creation, 4s. 6d. cl.
Wilson's (R. H.) History of our Lord, 4s. 6d. cl.
Winslow's Atonevent viewed experimentally, 7th edition, 3s. cl.
Winslow's Personal Devotion and Revival of Religion in Soul, 3s. cl.

TWENTY-THIRD MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

HULL, SEPTEMBER 7.

The Annual General Assembly of the Members of the Association opened in this town to-day. As usual, the first day of meeting was devoted in great part to the arrangement of the order of the future proceedings, and to the election of officers for the various Sections.

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

The General Committee assembled in the Library of the Infirmary, at 1 o'clock:—Col. Sabine, the retiring President of the Association, taking the chair.

The Assistant General Secretary, PROF. PHILLIPS, read the Report of the Council,—which was as follows:—

Report of the Proceedings of the Council in 1852-3, as presented to the General Committee at Hull, Wednesday, September 7, 1853.

1. With reference to the subjects referred to the Council by the General Committee at Belfast,—the Council have to report as follows:—

2. The Committee appointed for the purpose of "considering a plan by which the Transactions of different scientific Societies might become part of one arranged system, and the records of facts and phenomena be rendered more complete, more continuous, and more systematic than at present," has obtained from the greater part of its members written communications embodying their respective opinions on the subject in question, and it is proposed that on the return from Italy of Prof. Thompson, the originator of the resolution, these communications shall be discussed and a Report prepared.

3. On the request of the General Committee being com-

municated to the President and Council of the Royal Society, it was ordered by them that the Huyghenian object-glass of 133 feet focus should be mounted as an aerial telescope in the same manner as when employed in 1719 by Pound and Bradley. The superintendent of the mounting has been undertaken by Mr. De la Rue.

4. In consequence of a communication from the President of the British Association to the President and Council of the Royal Society, a Committee was formed for the purpose of taking such steps as they should deem most desirable to procure the establishment in the southern hemisphere of a telescope of large optical power for the observation of the southern nebulae. The Committee consisted of the following persons:—The Earl of Rosse, President of the Royal Society, Chairman; Lord Wrottesley, Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Sir John Herschel, Bart., the Dean of Ely, J. C. Adams, Esq., G. B. Airey, Esq., Sir David Brewster, E. J. Cooper, Esq., W. Lassell, Esq., J. Nasmyth, Esq., Rev. Dr. Robinson, and the officers and Council of the Royal Society. The Committee have conducted their proceedings partly by meetings and partly by printed correspondence; and having decided on the nature and size of the telescope and the mode of mounting which they deemed most advisable, they appointed a deputation to communicate with the Earl of Aberdeen with a view to obtaining the sanction of Her Majesty's Government and the requisite funds for the construction of the telescope. The Council have learned with satisfaction that the deputation was very favourably received by Lord Aberdeen, and that they have reason to entertain the hope that the necessary funds for the construction of the telescope will be included in the estimates presented to Parliament in its next session.

5. The resolution of the General Committee recommending that the publication of the townland survey of Ireland, upon the scale of an inch to a mile, should be accelerated, has been communicated to the Master-General of the Ordnance, and a favourable reply received.

6. In compliance with the resolution directing the Council to solicit the co-operation of the Royal Society in meteorological investigations attainable by balloon ascents, a communication was addressed to the President and Council of the Royal Society, which was most cordially received, and four such ascents, which should be accelerated, have been communicated to the Master-General of the Ordnance, and a favourable reply received.

7. Respecting "a series of experiments on a large scale on the thermal effects experienced by air in rushing through small apertures," a representation, as recommended, has been made to the Royal Society, and a grant of 100l. from the Government Fund at the disposal of the Royal Society has been made to Messrs. Thomson and Joule for the necessary apparatus.

8. The recommendation of the General Committee that in the event of a survey of the Gulf-stream being undertaken provision should be made for investigating its zoology and botany, has been communicated to the hydrographer of the Admiralty, and favourably received. A proposition from Dr. Baiche, Director of the Coast Survey of the United States, for a joint survey of the Gulf-stream by the United States and Great Britain, having been addressed to the President of the British Association since the Belfast meeting, has been forwarded to the hydrographer of the Admiralty, and has given rise to the following correspondence:—

Dr. Baiche to Col. Sabine.

Washington, October 20, 1852.

Dear Sir,—In the report of the proceedings of the recent meeting of the British Association over which you presided, I observe a recommendation which refers to a 'Survey of the Gulf-stream.' A systematic survey of the Gulf-stream at and below the surface, for hydrographic purposes, was commenced in connexion with the survey of the coast of the United States, under my direction, in 1842, and has been continued as means allowed each season since, and we have now carried the examination by sections perpendicular to the stream from off the capes of New York to Cape Hatteras. Might it not be useful to connect the work proposed by your Association with our labours, and if so, who is the proper person to address in regard to the matter? Will you oblige me by informing me in this matter?

Yours truly and respectfully, A. D. BACHE.

Col. Edward Sabine, President, British Association.

Col. Sabine to Rear-Admiral Sir F. Beaufort, K.C.B., Hydrographer.

Woolwich, November 10, 1852.

Sir,—I beg leave to inclose the copy of a letter which, as President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, I have received from Dr. Baiche, Director of the Coast Survey of the United States of North America.

The recommendation of a 'Survey of the Gulf-stream,' referred to by Dr. Baiche, is contained in the accompanying address of the President at the commencement of the Belfast Meeting of the British Association; the paragraph (page 19) is marked, and is to be taken in connexion with the preceding paragraph, referring to the correspondence which has recently taken place between the British and United States Governments, and the British Government and the Royal Society of London, on the subject of conjoint investigation into the currents and temperatures of the ocean by the ships of both nations under their respective hydrographic offices.

It is possible that the British Government may have acceded to the proposition to this effect made to them by the Government of the United States, and strongly recommended in the Report which the Earl of Malmesbury requested from the President and Council of the Royal Society; and that the department of the Admiralty over which you preside may have received directions to communicate accordingly with the Hydrographic Office of the

United States; in this case you may be able to inform me at once to whom I should recommend Dr. Baiche to address himself.

Should, however, no such directions have yet issued, it appears to me most desirable that I should place Dr. Baiche's letter in your hands to be communicated, should you think proper to do so, to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty; manifesting, as it does, a desire which is felt by a gentleman in his high official position in the United States to co-operate with the British Navy in accomplishing a "systematic survey of the Gulf-stream for hydrographic purposes," in consonance with the general plan proposed by the Government of the United States to Her Majesty's Government.

I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

EDWARD SABINE,

President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

The Hydrographer of the Admiralty.

Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, May 5, 1853.

Sir,—I have to thank you for the copy of Dr. Baiche's letter, which shows how rapidly every useful project in art or science is taken up in the United States, and then how energetically it is pushed forward. With respect to its immediate subject, you have long known that a thorough examination of the Gulf-stream has been, in my estimation, an object of great importance to navigation, and you may be therefore sure that whenever, and by whomsoever it may be undertaken, no effort of mine will be wanting to contribute to its success.

I confess, however, that I do not at once perceive how the two countries could profitably co-operate in the work; but there is no use in discussing the *modus operandi* till the Admiralty think proper to give me some direct orders to consider and report upon the subject, which has not yet been done.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant, F. BEAUFORT, Hydrographer.

Col. Sabine, R.A., Woolwich.

London, May 6, 1853.

My dear Sir,—I have this day received, and at once transmit to you a copy of, the British Hydrographer's reply to my letter of November 10th, 1852, inclosing a copy of your letter to me on the subject of a joint survey of the Gulf-stream by the United States and this country. You will see by Sir Francis Beaufort's letter that he fully concurs with you in recognizing the great importance to navigation of such a survey, and that no effort on his part is likely to be wanting to contribute to its success, whenever it shall be undertaken.

You have probably seen by a discussion which took place in the House of Lords, on Tuesday, the 26th of April, that Lieut. Maury's proposition for an extensive system of hydrographic inquiry, to be carried out conjointly by the ships of the two nations, has been favourably received by Her Majesty's Government, and the measures required for British co-operation are now under consideration.

The part which this country might take in a survey of the Gulf-stream must necessarily be under the direction of the hydrographer; and consequent on instructions received by him from the Admiralty. It is to be inferred from Sir Francis Beaufort's reply that it does not consist with the practice of his department to communicate to the Admiralty the fact that the Director of the Coast Survey of the United States has expressed a desire to undertake the survey of the Gulf-stream conjointly with Britain. Under these circumstances, the best suggestion which I am able to make to you in reply to your question to whom your proposition should be made, is that you should take the same course which Lieut. Maury has done, viz., that the proposition should proceed through your own Secretary of State, and the American Minister in this country, to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, by whom it will be communicated to the proper executive departments, and an official reply returned.

I think that I may safely and confidently assure you that my assistance which the British Association for the Advancement of Science can give in furtherance of a proposition of so much scientific as well as marine importance, will be most readily given. Believe me, most sincerely yours,

EDWARD SABINE,

Dr. A. D. Baiche, President of the British Association.

9. An application as directed by the General Committee has been made to the Master-General and Board of Ordnance to supply instruments for measuring the direction and amount of earthquake vibrations in the Ionian Islands, and instructions have in consequence been issued for the construction of the necessary instruments.

10. With reference to the resolution regarding the agricultural statistics of Great Britain, the Committee appointed to carry out the wishes of the General Committee have reported to the Council that having ascertained that measures having those objects in view had already been adopted by Her Majesty's Government, they have confined themselves to an expression of satisfaction therewith, and of readiness to afford any practicable aid on the part of the British Association.

11. On the subject of a grant in aid of the publication of Mr. Huxley's zoological and physiological researches in H.M.S. Rattlesnake, the Council has to report that the application made in the last year by the Presidents of the Royal Society and of the British Association to the Earl of Derby has been renewed in the present year to the Earl of Aberdeen by the Earl of Rosse, on behalf of both institutions. No reply has yet been received. The Council desire to take this occasion of calling the attention of the General Committee to the want which has been felt in this instance, as in many others, of suitable and systematic arrangements of the Government for the due publication of the results of scientific researches executed at the public expense by naval officers acting under the instructions of the Admiralty.

12. The Council, having been directed by the General Committee to take into consideration the expediency of pro-

curing copies of M. Dove's Maps and Memoir on the Distribution of Heat over the Surface of the Globe, made arrangements for obtaining from Mr. Dove two hundred and fifty copies of the maps from the original stones, and have arranged them to be bound up with a translation of M. Dove's Memoir, presented by Col. Sabine, to be disposed of to members of the Association at the cost price of the plates, the printing, and the binding.

13. In reference to the resolutions respecting the proposed co-operation of the British Association in recommending to Her Majesty's Government, in conjunction with the Royal Geographical Society, the examination of a portion of the eastern coast of Africa, the exploration of the countries around the river Magdalena, with a view to their natural products, and the ascent of the river Niger to its source, much delay was experienced from the circumstance that no papers whatsoever relative to those subjects were given at the close of the Belfast Meeting to the Assistant General Secretary, and that the Council were unable subsequently to procure such memorials, embodying statements of the objects and grounds of the recommendation, as it is the practice of the British Association to obtain in all cases of application to Government and to the East India Company. The subjects were thus necessarily left in the hands of the Royal Geographical Society.

14. The Council has great pleasure in expressing their conviction of the increased and increasing usefulness of the establishment at Kew, and subjoin the Report which they received from the superintending Committee. The Council recommends a continuation of a grant to this establishment to the same amount as in the last year.

15. The Council has been informed that the invitations formerly received by the British Association from Liverpool and Glasgow, to hold the meetings of the next two years at those places, will be renewed by deputations appointed to attend at Hull for that purpose. They have also been informed that it is the intention of the mayor, aldermen, and citizens of Gloucester, to present on the same occasion an invitation to the British Association to hold an early meeting in that city.

"Report of the Kew Committee of the British Association for 1852-3."

Since the last meeting of the British Association, the Kew Committee have completed the series of balloon ascents which they had contemplated—four ascents, in all having been made, viz., on Aug. 17, Aug. 26, Oct. 31, and Nov. 10, 1852. A Report of these ascents was communicated by the Kew Committee to the Council of the British Association, on the 29th Nov., 1852, a copy of which is appended to the present. A detailed account of the experiments, with a discussion of the general results, having been prepared by Mr. Welsh, it was communicated in April 26, by the Council of the British Association, to the Royal Society, and has since been printed in the Philosophical Transactions. At the request of the Council of the British Association, the Royal Society have granted to them 500 copies of the paper for distribution among their members; 50 copies have been presented to those gentlemen who took a part in the experiments, by making contemporaneous meteorological observations or otherwise. The remaining copies will be distributed to the purchasers of Dove's Isothermal Lines. The sum of 261*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* was granted by the Royal Society, from their Wollaston fund, to defray the expense of these ascents.

The sum expended was 242*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*, leaving a balance of 18*l.*, which has been repaid to the Treasurer of the Royal Society.

The Committee have, up to this time, been enabled to supply 70 thermometers, graduated under their superintendence, by Mr. Welsh.

All the applications yet received have now been complied with, except three or four for instruments of unusual construction or extent of graduation.

On the 30th of May, 1853, the Committee passed the following resolutions:—

"1st. That in order to facilitate the comparisons of thermometers with the standard at Kew, the Committee are prepared to furnish such instrument makers as may apply to them with a standard thermometer at the charge of 1*l.*

"2nd. The Committee are prepared to receive thermometers and to furnish a table of their errors, provided such thermometers are forwarded to Kew free of expense. It was subsequently resolved that the charge for the verification of such thermometers should be 3*s.* 6*d.* for each instrument.

"3rd. That as there are many very carefully recorded series of observations made with thermometers that have not been previously verified, the Committee will also be prepared (on receiving applications from the observers) to furnish the results of a comparison with the Kew standard. Such instruments to be forwarded to the Observatory free of expense."

The above resolutions having been forwarded to the editors of the *Athenæum* and the *Literary Gazette*, were kindly noticed by them in their respective journals, but with one exception (by an optician for a thermometer) no further application has been received by the Committee. It is, however, very probable that when such facilities for the correcting of observations made with imperfect thermometers are more generally known, further applications will be received. Except to those who have been actually engaged in reducing such observations, it is almost impossible to conceive the amount of comparatively useless observations that have been and are now daily recorded, owing to the imperfect instruments employed. During the past year, a very considerable portion of the time of Mr. Welsh has been occupied in the arrangement for, and the discussions of, the results of the balloon experiments, and he has no one to assist him in the carrying out of any meteorological observations, the amount of general work in the Observatory during the past year has necessarily been much less than in previous years; at the same time it will be seen that the expenditure has been proportionately diminished. The

total amount is 159*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.*, exclusive of the sum expended in the ascents, which, as has already been stated, was wholly defrayed by the Royal Society.

The Committee suggest that, with regard to the balance in hand, the same principle as that hitherto adopted should be continued, viz., that the balance from former years should be still held at the disposal of the Kew Committee (in the event of its being re-appointed), in addition to the usual annual grant of 300*l.* The strict economy with which the funds have been hitherto used is a sufficient guarantee that no unnecessary expenditure will be incurred.

The Committee recommend that an application should be made to the Commissioners of Woods and Forests for the temporary use of a small portion of the ground near the Observatory for the erection of suitable places for observing; the expense would be very trifling, while the position of the Observatory, in the centre of 450 acres of a level field, combined with its near proximity to the metropolis, renders it in every respect a most suitable place for the carrying on of those scientific researches which are so intimately connected with the objects of the British Association.

During the past year, an application has been received by the Council of the Association for a portion of the electrical apparatus belonging to the Association for the use of the Observatory at Toronto. This application was referred by the Council to the Committee. The following is an extract from their Minutes, 4th August, 1853:—Read a letter from Capt. Lefroy to Dr. Royle, dated Woolwich, 21st July, 1853. Resolved, that as the electrical apparatus referred to in Capt. Lefroy's letter is a portion of that constructed by Mr. Ronalds for the carrying out of his original experiments in atmospheric electricity, and in which the British Association has always taken so much interest, the Committee cannot recommend that any portion of it should be withdrawn from the Observatory, more particularly as Mr. Newman could supply a more perfect apparatus under the superintendence of Mr. Ronalds at a comparatively trifling cost.

Part of the Government grant placed at the disposal of the Royal Society having been entrusted to the Meteorological Sub-Committee, they have been enabled to prosecute their experiments for the improvement of meteorological instruments, and have, in furtherance of this object, obtained from Mr. Oertling a set of standard weights, made under the direction of Dr. Miller, with especial reference to facility of intercomparison. They are now in the hands of Prof. Miller, of Cambridge, for verification, and he expects in the course of about a month to have the trials of them complete. The standard scale, prepared by Messrs. Troughton & Simms, is awaiting Mr. Sheepshank's leisure for comparison with the bars in his possession. This scale is composed of a brass-rolled bar, about 41 inches long, 11 inch wide, and half an inch thick—the standard yard is laid down between two gold pins, inserted for the purpose, and the interval of 36 inches marked off by two fine lines near an edge of the bar, 40 inches subdivided into tenths, leave one marked off, and one-tenth has further been divided into hundredths of an inch.

Application having been made from the Hydrographer to the Admiralty for advice as to the thermometers to be supplied to Her Majesty's Navy for meteorological observations to be made at sea, the Committee have undertaken to recommend and provide a specimen of the form of instrument they consider best adapted for the purpose, and experiments are now being made by Mr. Welsh, with this object in view.

Lieut. Maury, of the United States Navy, has also requested the opinion of the Committee upon the best form of a Marine Barometer, and the subject is now under their consideration.

The standard barometer is not as yet mounted, but two tubes, of an inch in internal diameter, have boiled at the Observatory, by Messrs. Negretti & Zambra, under the inspection of the Committee, and the mounting is shortly expected to be completed.

The Committee cannot close their Report without expressing their high estimation of Mr. Welsh's services. The constant and unremitting attention to his duties, combined with the ability he has always evinced in their discharge, entitle him to the warmest thanks and individual support of every member of the British Association.

JOHN P. GASCOI, Chairman.

The Assistant General Secretary then read the Report of the Parliamentary Committee.—

The Report stated that only two points had engaged their attention, excessive foreign postages on scientific works, and Lieut. Maury's scheme for the improvement of navigation. The first point Lord Canning had promised to keep in view, with an idea to its amelioration. The second had resulted in an interview with the First Lord of the Admiralty, who stated he was prepared to issue instructions to captains of men-of-war to take the temperature of sea-water, and that he would send Capt. Beechy to Brussels on the 23rd of August to confer with Lieut. Maury, and the representatives of many of the maritime powers of Europe; he had also stated that he was willing to co-operate with the United States Government by sending a vessel to explore the ocean between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. But he was not yet prepared to recommend to the House of Commons the establishment of a separate department, for the purpose of reducing and co-ordinating the observations made either by ships of war or the mercantile marine. The deputation expressed their regret at this, and showed that unless an office were provided, it was in vain to expect observations would be made, and, if made, they would be productive of little or no benefit to navigation or science.

The Assistant General Secretary next read the list of officers as recommended by the Council,—which, on the motion of Prof. STEVELLY, was unanimously adopted. The names will appear here-

after in our Report at the heads of the several Sections.

Mr. NINNIS read the Abstract of the Treasurer's Account.—

THE GENERAL TREASURER'S ACCOUNT.

From the 1st of September 1852 (at Belfast), to the 5th of September 1853 (at Hull).

	£.	s.	d.
To Balance brought on from the previous Account	237	9	11
Life Compositions at Belfast Meeting	100	0	0
Ditto .. during the year	18	0	0
Annual Subscriptions at Belfast Meeting	183	0	0
Ditto .. during the year	58	1	0
Associates' Tickets at Belfast Meeting	241	1	0
Ladies' Tickets .. ditto	510	0	0
Composition for future Publications	292	0	0
Dividends on Stock (1 year)	3	0	0
Interest on Cash from Belfast	101	18	10
From the Sale of Publications—viz.—Reports, Catalogues of Stars, Dove's Lines, &c.	201	9	11
	£1,715	1	6

PAYMENTS.

	£.	s.	d.
For sundry Printing, Advertising, Binding, Expenses of Belfast Meeting, Petty Disbursements for Treasurer	216	16	10
Balance of Account for Printing Report of the 20th Meeting	175	9	6
Printing Report of the 21st Meeting	422	2	9
Engraving, &c. for Report of the 22nd Meeting	117	12	6
Salaries (12 months)	350	0	0
Maintaining the Establishment at Kew Observatory	163	0	0
On account of Grant for Researches on the British Annulide	10	0	0
Ditto, Experiments on the Influence of Solar Radiations	13	0	0
Ditto, Dredging on the East Coast of Scotland	10	0	0
Ditto, Ethnological Queries	5	0	0
Balance at the Bankers	£224	12	3
Ditto in the hands of the General Treasurer and Local Treasurers	3	7	6
	£1,715	1	6

Mr. HOPKINS, the President elect, stated that he believed this was the proper time for him to inform the General Committee that he had received a communication from Dr. Royle, the General Secretary of the Association, announcing that he found the duties of the Secretaryship incompatible with his other avocations,—and that consequently it was his wish to resign the office at such time and in such manner as would least inconvenience the Association. He apologized, also, for Dr. Royle's unavoidable absence from the present Meeting. Mr. Hopkins proceeded to say, that this would leave the duties of the General Secretary during the present Meeting unprovided for,—but that Col. Sabine, with the attention to the interests of the Association which characterized his whole conduct, had undertaken to perform such of the duties as required immediate attention. At a future meeting of the General Committee, a more permanent, though still provisional, arrangement would be submitted for their consideration and approval.—The Committee then adjourned to Monday, at 3 o'clock.

GENERAL MEETING.

The first General Meeting was held in the saloon of the Mechanics' Institute, at 8 o'clock in the evening; when Col. SABINE took the chair,—but only for the purpose of resigning it to his successor. This he did in the following words:—"In addressing you for the last time from this chair, in which your kindness has been pleased to place me, I have yet one duty to perform,—and it is one which is extremely agreeable. It is, to introduce to you a gentleman who by the General Committee has been selected as my successor. It has been considered necessary by gentlemen who have preceded me on several occasions to dwell on the qualifications and on the merits of the gentleman selected; but in this case Mr. Hopkins is so eminently distinguished, his accomplishments in the various branches of science, his general courtesy and amiability, and his kind disposition, have been so long and are so universally appreciated, that I feel confident I shall take the course which is most agreeable to your wishes in introducing him to you in the fewest possible words. I will, therefore, with your permission, request Mr. Hopkins to take the chair to which the General Committee has so worthily elected him."

The President for the year then took the chair:—and delivered the following inaugural Address on the objects and proceedings of the Association.

The President's Address.

Gentlemen of the British Association,—Before I proceed to those remarks which I may have to address to you on matters of science, let me avail myself of this opportunity of expressing to you the sense I entertain of the honour which you have conferred upon me in electing me to the Presidency of the Association. When this high office was first proposed to me, I could not but feel the importance of the duties attached to it. I felt, also, that there must be others who had higher claims to the honour than myself. But I was aware how frequently difficulties will occur in the immediate appointment to such offices of the persons most competent to fill them; and, after having been invited to the office by those best qualified to decide such points, I conceived it right not to shrink from its responsibilities, but at once to accept it, with the determination of performing the duties it might impose upon me to the best of my ability. I have had the less hesitation in adopting this course from the knowledge of the effective and ready assistance which I should always receive, not only from our excellent Secretary, Mr. Phillips, but also from my predecessor in this chair, who is so intimately acquainted with the whole working of the Association, to which he has rendered so long and so cheerfully such invaluable services. After thanking you, gentlemen, as I do most sincerely, for the high compliment you have paid me, and assuring you of my best efforts in the cause of the Association, I proceed to lay before you such statements and remarks on scientific subjects as have presented themselves most prominently to my own mind for this occasion. In doing this, I cannot but regret my inability to do justice to many subjects which might be interesting to you; and, indeed, the limited time for which I should be justified in demanding your attention to an oral communication, will oblige me to omit this evening several even of those points which I was prepared to bring under your notice.

Astronomical research still continues to prove to us how much more populous is that portion of space occupied by the solar system than was suspected only a few years ago. Between the 23rd of June, 1852 and the 6th of May, 1853, nine new planets were discovered, of which seven were found since the last meeting of the Association. Of these nine planets, our countryman, Mr. Hind, has discovered four. The number now known, exclusive of the large planets, but including the four old asteroids, amounts to twenty-six; nor have we any reason to suppose that we have yet approximated to the whole number of these minor planetary bodies. All those which have been recently recognized appear like stars of magnitude not lower than the eighth or ninth, and are consequently invisible to the naked eye. The search for them has now assumed, to a considerable extent, a more systematic form, by a previous mapping of the stars up to a certain magnitude, and contained within a belt of a few degrees in breadth on either side of the ecliptic. Any small planet will in the first instance be inserted in the map as a small star, but will on the re-examination of the same area some time afterwards, be recognized in its true character from the fact of its having moved from the place in which it was first observed. This mapping of the ecliptic stars from the eighth to higher magnitudes, is still comparatively limited; nor has the length of time during which any one portion, perhaps, of the space has been thus mapped, been sufficiently great to ensure the passage through it, within that time, of any planet whose period is as long as the possible periods of those which may yet remain unknown to us. Analogy would therefore lead us to conclude in favour of the probability of their number being much greater than that at present recognized. All those which are now known lie between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, but many may exist more distant and of much smaller apparent magnitudes; and thus almost the same careful telescopic research may be necessary to make us acquainted with some of our planetary neighbours

as with the remoter regions of space. Nor is the telescopic mode the only one by which we may detect the existence of remoter planets; for as Uranus betrayed the existence of Neptune, so may the latter hereafter reveal to us the retreats in which some more distant member of the system has hitherto hidden himself from the observation of man.

There would seem to be a tendency in the human mind to repose on the contemplation of any great truth after its first establishment. Thus, after the undisputed reception of the theory of gravitation and the complete explanation which it afforded of the planetary motions, men seemed to think little of any further revelations which the solar system might still have to make to us respecting its constitution, or the physical causes which it calls into operation. The recent discovery, however, of so many planets shows how imperfectly we may yet be acquainted with the planetary part of the system; and the continual discovery of new comets seems to indicate that in this department still more remains to be done. These curious bodies, too, may possibly have to reveal to us facts more interesting than any which the planets may still have in reserve for us. The experience of these latter bodies, if I may so speak, is more limited, and their testimony, consequently, more restricted. But they have already told us a noble tale. In moving, as they do, in exact obedience to the law of gravitation, and thus establishing that law, they have affirmed the highest generalization in physical science which it has been accorded to the human mind to conceive. At the same time, the approximate circularity of their orbits prevents their passing through those varied conditions to which comets are subjected. Thus, while the latter obey, in common with the planets, the laws of gravitation, they frequently present to us in their apparent changes of volume, form and general character, phenomena, the explanation of which has hitherto baffled the ingenuity of astronomers. One of the most curious of these phenomena has been recently observed in Biela's comet. This comet has a period of about six years and a half, and has been observed a considerable number of times on its periodical return to the neighbourhood of the sun. It appeared in November, 1845, and in the following January the phenomenon alluded to was observed for the first time. The comet had become divided into two distinct parts with separate nuclei. Sometimes the one and sometimes the other appeared the brighter till their final disappearance. The elements of the orbits of these twin comets were calculated by Prof. Plantamour, from observations made at Geneva in 1845-6, assuming them to be uninfluenced by each other's attractions. The correctness of these elements could be determined only on the next return of the comet, which took place in the autumn of last year, one of the nuclei having been first seen by Signor Secchi at Rome, on the 25th of August, and the other on the 15th of September. The subsequent observations made upon them show that the elements of the orbits, as previously calculated from the Geneva observations, were far from exact. A complete discussion of all the observations which have been made on these comets during their last and previous appearances, is now in progress by Prof. Hubbard, of the Washington Observatory. The distance between the two nuclei was much increased on their last appearance. Judging from the apparent absence of all influence and sympathy between these bodies, it would seem that their physical divorcement, though without known precedent, is final and complete.

Stellar Astronomy continues to manifest a vigour and activity worthy of the lofty interest which attaches to it. Bessel had made a survey of all stars to those of the ninth magnitude inclusive, in a zone lying between 45° of north, and 15° of south declination. Argelander has extended this zone from 80° of north to 31° of south declination. It comprises more than 100,000 stars. Last year was published also the long-expected work of M. F. G. W. Struve, containing a catalogue of stars observed by him at Dorpat, in the years 1822-43. They are principally double and multiple stars, which had been previously micrometrically observed

by the same distinguished astronomer. Their number amounts to 2874; the epoch of reduction is 1830. The introduction contains the discussion of various important points in stellar astronomy.

Notices have been brought before us, from time to time, of the nebule observed through Lord Rosse's telescope. This noble instrument, so unrivalled for observations of this kind, continues to be applied to the same purpose, and to add yearly to our knowledge of the remotest regions of space into which the eye of man has been able to penetrate. Almost every new observation appears to confirm the fact of that curious tendency to a spiral arrangement in these nebulous masses of which mention has so frequently been made. To those persons, however, who have neither seen the objects themselves, nor careful drawings of them, a mere verbal description must convey very indistinct conceptions of the spiral forms which they assume. I have, therefore, had the drawings made which are suspended in the room for your inspection. They will convey to you at once an idea of the spiral forms alluded to. I am indebted to the kindness of Lord Rosse for the use of the original drawings,—and for these large and accurate copies of them to our excellent Secretary, Mr. Phillips, who, with his usual ready activity in the cause of the Association, has had them prepared for the purpose of this evening. Most of them are representations of nebule which have been very recently observed.

Two pairs of these are respectively drawings of the same objects; the larger one of each pair representing the nebula as seen through the large telescope, the other as seen through a smaller one of Lord Rosse's of only 3 feet aperture. You will observe how little resemblance there is between them, except in the external boundary, and how entirely the characteristic details of the larger drawings are lost in the smaller ones; and if I had exhibited to you drawings of some others of these nebule as seen by previous observers with inferior telescopic power, it would have been still more obvious to you how necessary are telescopes with large and perfectly ground mirrors for the development of the real character of these astonishing and enigmatical aggregations of stars.

It is for this reason that it has been thought desirable to have the nebule of the southern hemisphere examined with higher telescopic power than has hitherto been brought to bear upon them. You are aware with what a noble devotion to science Sir J. Herschel spent several years at the Cape of Good Hope in the examination of the southern heavens; but his telescopic power was limited to that of a reflector of 18½ inches aperture. It is now proposed to send out to some convenient station in the southern hemisphere a reflecting telescope, with a mirror of 4 feet aperture. Mr. Grubb, of Dublin, has undertaken to construct such an instrument (should the plan proposed be adopted) under the general superintendence of Lord Rosse, Dr. Robinson, Mr. Lassell, and one or two other gentlemen. The general construction of the instrument, and the best mode of mounting it, have been decided on with careful deliberation, after consulting all the best authorities on the subject.

These important preliminaries being agreed upon, and an estimate of the whole expense of the instrument having been made by Mr. Grubb, the deputation appointed for the purpose proceeded to wait on Lord Aberdeen, to ascertain whether the Government were willing to bear the expense which the plan proposed would involve. His Lordship expressed himself, without hesitation, as favourable to the undertaking; but said that, since it involved a grant of money, it would be necessary to consult the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who, supposing him to take a favourable view of the subject, would probably bring it before the House of Commons among the estimates of the ensuing year. With this answer the deputation could not be otherwise than perfectly satisfied, nor could they fail also to be gratified by the perfect courtesy with which they were received. Judging from all we know respecting Mr. Gladstone's enlightened views on subjects of this nature, and the favourable manner in which the House of Commons has always re-

ceived propositions for the advancement of science, we have, I think, every reason to hope that my successor in this chair may have the satisfaction of announcing to you another example of the liberality of the Government in their acceptance of the plan proposed to them. In such case, the result, I doubt not, will afford a new proof that the Association is doing effectively what it professes to do as an Association for the Advancement of Science.

The refinement of modern methods of astronomical observation has become so great, that astronomers appear very generally to think that a higher degree of refinement in the calculations of physical astronomy than has yet been attained is becoming necessary. Mr. Adams has been engaged in some important researches of this kind. He has corrected an error in Burchard's value of the moon's parallax; and he has also determined to a nearer approximation than that obtained by Laplace the secular variation in the moon's mean motion. The former investigation is published in an appendix to the *Nautical Almanac* for 1856; the latter has been very recently presented to the Royal Society.

Before I quit this subject, I may state that an 'American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for 1855,' has been published this year. It is the first American Nautical Almanac, and is considered to reflect great credit on the astronomers of that country. It is under the superintendence of Lieut. C. H. Davis, assisted in the physical department by Prof. Peirce.

No one has contributed more to the progress of Terrestrial Magnetism, during the last few years, than my distinguished predecessor in this chair. Formerly we owed theories on this subject much more to the boldness of ignorance than to the just confidence of knowledge; but from the commencement of the systematic observations which Col. Sabine has been so active in promoting, this vague and useless theorizing ceased,—to be succeeded, probably ere long, by the sound speculative researches of those who may be capable of grappling with the real difficulties of the subject, when the true laws of the phenomena shall have been determined. Those laws are coming forth with beautiful precision from the reductions which Col. Sabine is now making of the numerous observations taken at the different magnetic stations. In his Address of last year, he stated to us that the secular change of the magnetic forces was confirmed by these recent observations,—and also that periodical variations depending on the solar day, and on the time of the year, had been distinctly made out, indicating the sun as the cause of these variations. During the present year the results of the reduction of the observations made at Toronto have brought out, with equal perspicuity, a variation in the direction of the magnetic needle going through all its changes exactly in each lunar day. These results with reference to the sun prove, as Col. Sabine has remarked, the immediate and direct exercise of a magnetic influence emanating from that luminary; and the additional results now obtained establish the same conclusion with regard to the influence of the moon. It would seem, therefore, that some of the curious phenomena of magnetism which have hitherto been regarded as strictly terrestrial, are really due to solar and lunar, as much as to terrestrial magnetism. It is beautiful to trace with such precision these delicate influences of bodies so distant, producing phenomena scarcely less striking either to the imagination or to the philosophic mind than more obvious phenomena which originate in the great luminary of our system.

New views which have recently sprung up respecting the nature of Heat have been mentioned, though not in detail, by my two immediate predecessors in the chair of the Association. They are highly interesting theoretically, and important in their practical application, inasmuch as they modify in a considerable degree the theory of the steam-engine, the air-engine, or any other in which the motive power is derived immediately from heat; and it is correct theory alone which can point out to the practical engineer the degree of perfection at which he may aim in the construction of such machines, and which can enable him to compare accurately their merits when the best construction is arrived at.

A theory which proposes to explain the thermal agency by which motive power is produced, and to determine the numerical relations between the quantity of heat and the quantity of mechanical effect produced by it, may be termed a *dynamical theory of heat*. Carnot was the first to give to such a theory a mathematical form. His theory rested on two propositions which were regarded as axiomatic. The first embodied the abstract conception of a perfect thermo-dynamic engine, and has been equally adopted by the advocates of the new theory of heat. Again, suppose a given quantity of heat to enter a body by any process, and thereby to change its temperature and general physical state; and then, by a second process, suppose the body to be restored exactly to its primitive temperature and condition.—Carnot's second fundamental proposition asserts that the quantity of heat which passes out of the body into surrounding space, or into other bodies, in the form of heat, during the second operation, is precisely the same as that which passed into the body during the first operation. This view does not recognize the possibility of heat being lost by conversion into something else,—and in this particular it is at variance with the new theory, which asserts that heat may be lost by conversion into mechanical effect. To elucidate this distinction, suppose a quantity of water to be poured into an empty vessel. It might then be asserted that, in emptying the vessel again, we must pour out just as much water as we had previously poured in. This would be equivalent to Carnot's proposition with respect to heat. But suppose a part of the water while in the vessel to be converted into vapour; then it would not be true that in emptying the vessel the same quantity of water, in the form of water, must pass out of the vessel as had before passed into it, since a portion would have passed out in the form of vapour. This is analogous to the assertion of the new theory with regard to heat,—which may be lost, according to that theory, by conversion into mechanical effect, in a manner analogous to that in which water may be said to be lost by conversion into vapour. But the new theory not only asserts generally the convertibility of heat into mechanical effect, and the converse,—but also more definitely, that, whatever be the mode of converting the one into the other,—and whether heat be employed to produce mechanical effect, or mechanical force be employed to produce heat,—the same quantity of the one is always the equivalent of the same quantity of the other. This proposition can only be established by experiment. Rumford, who was one of the first to adopt the fundamental notion of this theory as regards the nature of heat, made a rough attempt to determine the relation between the force producing friction and the heat generated by it; but it was reserved for Mr. Joule to lay the true foundation of this theory by a series of experiments which, in the philosophical discernment with which they were conceived and the ingenuity with which they were executed, have not often, perhaps, been surpassed. In whatever way he employed mechanical force to produce heat, he found, approximately, the same quantity of heat produced by the same amount of force; the force being estimated in foot-pounds according to the usual mode in practical mechanics,—i. e., by the motive power employed in raising a weight of 1 lb. through the space of 1 foot. The conclusion adopted by Mr. Joule is, that 1° Fahr. is equivalent to 772 foot-pounds.

These results are unquestionably among the most curious and interesting of those which experimental research has recently brought before us. When first announced some ten or twelve years ago, they did not attract the attention which they deserved; but more recently their importance has been fully recognized by all those who cultivate the department of science to which they belong. Of this Mr. Joule received last year one of the most gratifying proofs, in the award made to him by the Council of the Royal Society of one of the medals placed annually at their disposal. It may not be known to many of you that we have in Mr. Joule a pupil, friend, and fellow-townsmen of Dalton.

This theory is in perfect harmony with the opin-

ions now very generally entertained respecting radiant heat. Formerly light and heat were regarded as consisting of material particles continually radiating from luminous and heated bodies respectively; but it may now be considered as established beyond controversy that light is propagated through space by the vibrations of an exceedingly refined ethereal medium, in a manner exactly analogous to that in which sound is propagated by the vibration of the air,—and it is now supposed that radiant heat is propagated in a similar manner. This theory of radiant heat, in accordance with the dynamical theory of which I have been speaking, involves the hypothesis that the particles of a heated body, or a particular set of them, are maintained in a state of vibration, similar to that in which a sonorous body is known to be, and in which a luminous body is believed to be. At the same time, there are remarkable differences between light and heat. We know that light is propagated with enormous velocity, whether in free space or through transparent media; sound also is propagated with great rapidity, and more rapidly through most media than through air. Heat, on the contrary, whatever may be the velocity with which it may radiate through free space, is usually transmitted with extreme slowness through terrestrial media. There appears to be nothing in light analogous to the slow conduction of heat. Again, the vibrations which render a body sonorous have no tendency to expand its dimensions, nor is there reason to suppose that luminous vibrations have any such tendency on luminous bodies; whereas, with the exception of particular cases, heat does produce expansion. It is principally from this property of heat that it becomes available for the production of motive power, as, for instance, in the expansion of steam. These phenomena of the slow conduction of heat and the expansion of heated bodies, are proofs of differences between light and heat not less curious than the analogies above indicated. They must, of course, be accounted for by any perfect theory of heat. Mr. Rankine has written an ingenious paper on a molecular theory of heat; but before any such theory can be pronounced upon, it will be necessary, I conceive, to see its bearing on other molecular phenomena, with which those of heat are in all probability intimately connected. Prof. W. Thomson has also given a clear and compendious mathematical exposition of the new dynamical theory of heat, founded on Mr. Joule's principle of the exact equivalence of heat and mechanical effect. This is not, like Mr. Rankine's, a molecular theory, but one which must henceforth take the place of Carnot's theory.

Before leaving this subject, I may add, that Prof. Thomson and Mr. Joule are now engaged in further experiments which will serve to elucidate the new theory of heat. Some account of the commencement of these experiments has already been brought before the Royal Society.

Many years ago Gay-Lussac made an ascent in a balloon for the purpose of making observations on the air in the upper regions of the atmosphere; but it is only very recently that systematic observations of this kind have been attempted. Last autumn, four balloon ascents were made by Mr. Welsh, under the guidance of the distinguished aeronaut, Mr. Green. Attention was chiefly directed to the determination of the pressure, temperature, and moisture of the air at different altitudes. The decrease of temperature in ascending was very irregular,—being changed even in some cases to an increase; but the mean result gives a decrease of 1° Fahr. for every 343 feet of ascent,—agreeing within 5 or 6 feet with the result obtained by Gay-Lussac. The latter gentleman ascended 23,000 feet; the greatest height attained by Mr. Welsh was 22,940. A repetition of similar observation in ascents made from different points of the earth's surface could scarcely fail to lead to valuable information for the science of Meteorology.

An immense contribution, of which brief mention was made by my predecessor, has been made within the last few years to this science, by the publication of Prof. Dove's Isothermal Maps, giving us the temperature of the lowest portion of the atmosphere (that which determines the climate

of every region) for nearly all accessible points of the earth's surface. An immense number of thermometric observations had been made at fixed stations, or by travellers in almost every part of the globe, but were lying comparatively useless for want of adequate discussion. This task was undertaken some years ago by M. Dove. It was not merely a task of enormous labour, but one requiring great critical acuteness and sound philosophical judgment, and these qualifications M. Dove brought to his work, which has resulted in the excellent maps alluded to, accompanied by a considerable amount of letter-press, full of interesting generalizations, and written in the genuine spirit of inductive philosophy.

His maps present a great number of isothermal lines,—i. e., lines passing through all those places which, at an assigned period of the year, have the same temperature, each line indicating a particular temperature differing by a few degrees from those of the adjoining lines. Besides a large map giving these lines for January and July, the months of extreme winter and summer temperature, there are smaller ones giving similar lines for all the different months. An English edition of these maps has just been published.

We may easily conceive how a great ocean current of warm water from the tropics may affect the temperature of the atmosphere in the colder regions into which it may penetrate; but it is only since the publication of these maps that we have had any adequate idea of the extent of this influence, or been able to appreciate the blessings conferred on the shores of north-western Europe, and especially on our own islands, by the Gulf-stream. This great current, though not always under the same name, appears, as you are probably aware, to traverse the Atlantic in a north-westerly direction till it reaches the West India Islands and the Gulf of Mexico. It is then reflected by the American coast, and takes a north-easterly direction to our own shores, extending beyond Iceland into the North Sea. It is to the enormous mass of heated water thus poured into the colder seas of our own latitudes that we owe the temperate character of our climate; and the maps of M. Dove enable us not only to assert distinctly this general fact, but also to make an approximate calculation of the amount to which the temperature of these regions is thus affected. If a change were to take place in the configuration of the surface of the globe, so as to admit the passage of this current directly into the Pacific across the existing Isthmus of Panama, or along the base of the Rocky Mountains of North America into the North Sea—a change indefinitely small in comparison with those which have heretofore taken place—our mountains, which now present to us the ever-varying beauties of successive seasons, would become the unvarying abodes of the glacier and regions of the snow-storm; the beautiful cultivation of our soil would be no longer maintained, and civilization itself must retreat before the invasion of such physical barbarism. It is the genial influence of the Gulf-stream which preserves us from these evils. Among its effects on our climate, I may mention one which may not be without its local interest along this coast, especially for those who may wish to visit it during the winter for health as well as for pleasure. The temperature of the atmosphere to the north of this island is so ameliorated by the Gulf-stream in the depth of winter, that the isothermal lines for the month of January along the whole eastern coast of Great Britain and the opposite western coast of the Continent, run north and south instead of following their normal east and west direction, thus showing that Scarborough, or any watering-place on the same coast much further to the north, enjoys as temperate a climate in the depth of winter as the coast of Kent. In the early spring, however, it becomes considerably colder than on the latter coast.

My predecessor, in his Address, informed us of an application made to our Government by that of the United States, to adopt a general and systematic mode of observing phenomena of various kinds at sea, such as winds, tides, currents, &c., which may not only be of general scientific interest, but may also have an important bearing on naviga-

tion. The plan proposed by Lieut. Maury, and adopted by the American Government, is, to have the required observations regularly made by the commanders of vessels sent out to sea. I am happy to be able to state to you that our Admiralty have given orders for similar observations to be made by those who have command of English vessels; and we trust also that proper persons will be appointed without delay for the reduction of the mass of observations which will thus soon be accumulated.

The science of Geology may be regarded as comprising two great divisions—the physical and the paleontological portions. The former may be subdivided into its chemical and dynamical branches. The chemical department has never made any great progress, though abounding in problems of first-rate interest—such, for instance, as the formation of coal, the segregation of mineral matter constituting mineral veins of all descriptions, the processes of the solidification and crystallization of rocks, of the production of their jointed and laminated structure, and many others. Interesting experiments are not altogether wanting on points such as these; but not sufficient to constitute, as far as I am aware, a positive foundation and decided progress in this branch of the science. The problems, doubtless, involve great difficulties, both as regards the action of the chemical agencies themselves and the varied conditions under which they may have acted. The accomplished chemist alone can combat the difficulties of the former kind, and the geologist those of the latter. Both these characters must be united in any one who may hope to arrive at the true solution of these problems. We cannot too earnestly invite attention to this branch of geology on the part of those best qualified to contend with its difficulties.

The dynamical, or, more strictly, the mechanical department of the science, has received a much larger share of attention. In fact, almost all theories and speculations of geologists, independently of organic remains, belong to it, and a large portion of the work of geologists in the field has been devoted to the observation of phenomena on which it treats. *Phenomena of elevation*, those which have immediately resulted from the action of the subterranean forces which have so wonderfully scarred and furrowed the face of our globe, have been made the objects of careful research. It is to this probably violent and desolating action that we owe the accessibility of the mineral sources of our mining districts, as well as all those exquisite beauties of external nature which the mountain and the valley present to us. The absence of all order and arrangement would seem, on a superficial view, to be the especial characteristic of mountainous districts; and yet the nice observations of the geologist has detected, in such districts, distinct approximations to general laws in the great dislocations and upheavals in which the mountains and the valleys have originated. The more usual law in these phenomena consists in the approximate parallelism of all those great lines of dislocation and chains of mountains the formation of which can be traced back to the same geological epoch. That this law is distinctly recognizable throughout districts, sometimes of many hundred miles in extent, is clearly established; but some geologists contend that it may also be recognized as prevailing over much larger geographical areas than any single geological district presents to us. M. Élie de Beaumont was the originator, and has been the great advocate, of this extension of the theory of parallelism. He extends it, in fact, to the whole surface of the earth:—using the term *parallelism* in a certain modified sense, to render it applicable to lines drawn on a spherical instead of a plain surface. His theory asserts, that all great lines of dislocation, and, therefore, all mountain chains originating in them, wherever situated, may be grouped into *parallel systems*, and that all the lines or mountain chains belonging to any one system were produced simultaneously by one great convulsion of the earth's crust. This theory has been advocated by him many years; but he has recently published his latest views respecting it, and has made an important addition, which may, in fact, be regarded as an independent theory. Each of

the parallel systems already mentioned will have its characteristic direction to which all the lines of that system are parallel. This new theory asserts that these characteristic directions are not determined, as it were, by accident or chance,—but that they have certain relations to each other, so that the respective systems to which they belong are disposed over the earth's surface according to a distinct symmetrical arrangement. For the details of this curious theory I can only refer to the author's work, or to the analysis which I gave of it last February in my address to the Geological Society. I feel it right, however, to add, that after an attentive examination of the subject, the evidence adduced by M. de Beaumont in support of the last-mentioned theory has failed to convey conviction to my own mind. With reference to the parallelism of contemporaneous lines of elevation, no one, I conceive, will deny the truth of M. de Beaumont's theory in its application to many geological districts of limited extent; but it will probably be the opinion of most English geologists that, in attempting to extend it to districts far remote from each other, he has overstepped the bounds of legitimate induction from facts with which we are at present acquainted. Every one, however, who studies M. de Beaumont's work, in whatever degree he may be disposed to adopt or reject the theoretical views of that distinguished geologist, will admit the ability and the knowledge which he has brought to bear on the subject, and the advantages which must result from the ample discussion which he has given it.

One favourite subject of speculation in the physical branch of geology has been, at all times since the origin of the science, the state of the interior of our planet, and the source of the high temperature observed at all considerable depths beneath its surface. The terrestrial temperature at a certain depth in each locality (about 80 feet in our own region) remains constant during the whole year, being sensibly unaffected by the changing temperature of the seasons. The same, of course, holds true at greater depths; but the lower we descend the greater is this invariable temperature, the increase being proportional to the depth, and at the rate of 1° Fahr. for about every 60 or 70 feet. Assuming this rate of increase to continue to the depth of 50 miles, we should arrive at a temperature about twice as great as that necessary to fuse iron, and sufficient, it is supposed, to reduce nearly the whole mass of the earth's solid crust to a state of fusion. Hence the opinion adopted by many geologists is, that our globe does really consist of a solid shell, not exceeding 40 or 50 miles in thickness, and an interior fluid nucleus, maintained in a state of fusion by the existing remains of the heat to which the whole terrestrial mass was originally subjected. It might, at first sight, appear that this enormous mass of molten matter, inclosed in so thin a shell, could scarcely be consistent with the general external condition, and temperature of our globe; but it is quite certain that the real external temperature and this supposed internal temperature of the earth are not inconsistent with each other, and that no valid argument of this kind can be urged against the above hypothesis.

The above estimate, however, of the thickness of the earth's solid crust, entirely neglects the possible effects of the enormous pressure to which the terrestrial mass at any considerable depth is subjected. Now, this pressure may produce effects of two kinds bearing directly on the question before us. In the above calculation, terrestrial matter placed at the depth of 40 or 50 miles, with a pressure of more than 200,000 pounds on the square inch, is assumed to be fusible at the same temperature as if it were subjected merely to the ordinary atmospheric pressure; whereas the temperature of fusion may possibly be very much increased by such immense pressure as that which I have mentioned. In such case, the terrestrial matter may be retained in a solid state at much greater depths than it otherwise would be:—i. e. the solid crust may be much thicker than the above estimate of 40 or 50 miles. Again, in this estimate, it is assumed that heat will pass as easily through the most superficial portion of the earth's mass as through the

compressed portions at considerable depths. Now, in this assumption there is, I think, a great *a priori* improbability, and especially with reference to those superficial rocks in which observations on the increase of terrestrial temperature in descending have generally been made; for these rocks are, for the most part, sedimentary strata, which in general, independently of the effect of pressure, are doubtless worse conductors than the older, more compact, and more crystalline rocks. But if heat passes through the lower portions of this terrestrial mass with more rapidity than through its uppermost portion—i. e. if the *conductive power* be greater at greater depths—the temperature at considerable depths must increase *more slowly* as we descend than it is observed to increase at the smaller depths to which we can penetrate,—and consequently it would be necessary, in such case, to descend to a greater depth before we should reach the temperature necessary to produce fusion. On this account also, as well as from the increased temperature of fusion, the thickness of the earth's crust may be much greater than the previous estimate would make it.

It has been for the purpose of ascertaining the effects of great pressure that Mr. Fairbairn, Mr. Joule, and myself, have undertaken the experiments in which we have for some time been engaged at Manchester. The first object in these experiments is, the determination of the effect of pressure on the temperature of fusion of as many substances as we may be enabled to experiment upon. We expected to meet with many difficulties in the use of the enormous pressures which we contemplated, and these expectations have certainly been fully verified; but we were also satisfied that those difficulties might be overcome by perseverance and patience, and in this also we have not been disappointed,—for I may now venture to assert that our ultimate success, with respect to a number of substances, is beyond doubt. Without the engineering resources, however, at Mr. Fairbairn's command, success would have been hopeless.

At present our experiments have been restricted to a few substances, and those of easy fusibility; but I believe our apparatus to be now so complete for a considerable range of temperature, that we shall have no difficulty in obtaining further results. Those already obtained indicate an *increase in the temperature of fusion proportional to the pressure to which the fused mass is subjected*. In employing a pressure of about 13,000 lb. to the square inch on bleached wax, the increase in the temperature of fusion was not less than 30° Fahr.,—about one-fifth of the whole temperature at which it melts under the pressure of the atmosphere. We have not yet ascertained the degree in which the *conductive power* of any substance may be increased when solidified under great pressure. This point we hope to investigate with due care; and also to determine the effects on substances thus solidified, with respect to their density, strength, crystalline forms, and general molecular structure. We thus hope to obtain results of general interest and value, as well as those which may bear more directly on the questions which first suggested the experiments.

Among researches for determining the nature of the earth's crust at depths greater than those to which we can penetrate, I must not omit mention of Mr. Mallet's very elaborate Report on Earthquakes, contained in the last two volumes of the Reports of the Association. This *Earthquake Catalogue* is preceded by an account of some very interesting and carefully conducted experiments on the transmission of vibrations through solid media. These results will be found of great value whenever the subject of earthquakes shall receive that careful attention which it so well deserves. Insulated observations, and those casual notices which are now frequently given of earthquake phenomena, are utterly useless for scientific purposes. There are no observations which more require to be regulated by system and combination than those of the phenomena in question; and I should rejoice to see the influence of the Association exerted for this purpose, when some efficient mode of proceeding shall have been devised.

Some of the most interesting of recent discoveries in organic remains are those which prove the existence of reptilian life during the deposition of some of our oldest fossiliferous strata. An almost perfect skeleton of a reptile belonging to the Batrachians or Lacertians was lately found in the Old Red Sandstone of Morayshire. The remains of a reptile were also discovered last year by Sir Charles Lyell and Mr. Dawson in the coal measures of Nova Scotia; and a batrachoid fossil has also been recognized in British coal shale. But the most curious evidence of the early existence of animals above the lower orders of organization on the face of our globe, is that afforded by the footprints discovered a short time ago in Canada by Mr. Logan on large slabs of the oldest fossiliferous rocks,—those of the Silurian epoch. It was inferred from the more imperfect specimens first brought over, that these footmarks were the marks of some reptile; but more perfect examples, afterwards supplied by Mr. Logan, satisfied Prof. Owen that they were the impressions of some animal belonging to the Articulata, probably a crustacean. Thus the existence of animals of the reptile type of organization during the carboniferous and Devonian periods is clearly established; but no evidence has yet been obtained of the existence of those animals during the Silurian period. After the discoveries which I have mentioned, however, few geologists will perhaps be surprised should we hereafter find that higher forms of animal life were introduced upon the earth during this early period than have yet been detected in its sedimentary beds.

Many of you will be aware that there are two theories in geology, which may be styled the theories of *progression* and of *non-progression* respectively. The former asserts that the matter which constitutes the earth has passed through continuous and progressive changes from the earliest state in which it existed to its actual condition at the present time. The earliest state here contemplated may have been a fluid, or even a gaseous state, due to the enormous primitive heat of the mass, and it is to the gradual loss of that heat that the progressive change recognized by this theory is chiefly attributed. The theory of *non-progression*, on the contrary, recognizes no primitive state of our planet differing essentially from its existing state. The only changes which it does recognize being those which are strictly periodical, and therefore produce no permanent alteration in the state of our globe. With reference to organic remains, the difference between these theories is exactly analogous to that now stated with reference to inorganic matter. The theory of *progression* asserts that there has been a general advance in the forms of organic life from the earliest to the more recent geological periods. This advance must not be confounded, it should be observed, with that progressive development according to which animals of a higher organic structure are but the improved lineal descendants of those of the lowest grade, thus abolishing all distinction of species. It is merely meant to assert that the higher types of organic being are far more generally diffused at the present time, and far more numerous and varied than they were at the earlier geological periods; and that, moreover, at the earliest of those periods which the geologist has been able to recognize, some of these higher types had probably no existence at all.

Each successive discovery, like those which I have mentioned, of the remains of animals of the higher types in the older rocks, is regarded by some geologists as an addition to the cumulative evidence by which they conceive that the theory of *non-progression* will be ultimately established; while others consider the deficiency in the evidence required to establish that theory as far too great to admit the probability of its being supplied by future discovery. Nor can the theory derive present support, it is contended, by an appeal to any properties of inorganic matter, or physical laws, with which we are acquainted. Prof. W. Thomson has recently entered into some very interesting speculations bearing on this subject, and suggested by the new theory of heat of which I have spoken. The heat of a heavenly body placed under the same conditions as the sun, must, it has been said, be

ultimately exhausted by its rapid emission. This assertion assumes the matter composing the sun to have certain properties like those of terrestrial matter with respect to the generation and emission of heat; but Prof. Thomson's argument places the subject on better grounds, admitting, always, the truth of the new theory of heat. That theory asserts, in the sense which I have already stated, the exact equivalence of heat and motive power; and that a body, in sending forth heat, must lose a portion of that internal motion of its constituent particles on which its thermal state depends. Now we know that no mutual action of these constituent particles can continue to generate motion which might compensate for the loss of motion thus sustained. This is a simple deduction from dynamical laws and principles, independent of any property of terrestrial matter which may possibly distinguish it from that of the sun. Hence, then, it is on these dynamical principles that we may rest the assertion that the sun cannot continue for an indefinite time to emit the same quantity of heat as at present, unless his thermal energy be renovated from some extraneous source. The same conclusion may be applied to all other bodies in the universe which, like our sun, may be centres of intense heat; and, hence, recognizing no adequate external supplies of heat to renovate these existing centres of heat, Prof. Thomson concludes that the dispersion of heat, and consequently of physical energy, from the sun and stars into surrounding space without any recognizable means of reconcentration, is the existing order of nature. In such case the heat of the sun must ultimately be diminished, and the physical condition of the earth therefore altered, in a degree altogether inconsistent with the theory of non-progression.

Mr. Rankine, however, has ingeniously suggested an hypothesis according to which the reconcentration of heat is conceivable. Assuming the physical universe to be of finite extent and surrounded by an absolute vacuum, radiant heat (supposing it to be propagated in the same way as light) would be incapable of passing into the vacuum, and would be reflected back to foci corresponding to the points from which it emanated. A reconcentration of heat would thus be effected; and any of the heavenly bodies which had previously lost their heat, might, on passing through these foci, be rekindled into bright centres of radiant heat. I have alluded more particularly to this very ingenious, though, perhaps, fanciful hypothesis, because some persons have, I believe, regarded this view of the subject as affording a sanction to the theory of *non-progression*; but even if we should admit its truth to the fullest extent, it may be deemed, I think, entirely inconsistent with that uniformity and permanence of physical condition in any of the heavenly bodies which the theory just mentioned requires in our own planet. The author of this hypothesis did not possibly contemplate any such application of it; nor am I aware how far he would advocate it as really applicable to the actual constitution of the material universe, or would regard it as suggesting a possible and conceivable, rather than a probable, mode of counteracting the constant dispersion of heat from its existing centres. He has not, I think, attempted to work out the consequences of the hypothesis as applied to light,—to which it must, I conceive, be necessarily considered applicable if it be so to heat. In such case the foci of the reflected heat would be coincident with those of the reflected light, proceeding originally from the same luminous bodies. These foci would thus become visible as the images of stars; so that the apparent number of stars would be constantly increasing with the increasing number of images of each star produced by successive reflexions. This will scarcely be considered the actual order of nature. It would be easy to trace other consequences of the application of this hypothesis to light; but I would at present merely state that my own convictions entirely coincide with those of Prof. Thomson. If we are to found our theories upon our knowledge, and not upon our ignorance, of physical causes and phenomena, I can only recognize in the existing state of things a passing phase of the material universe. It may be calculated in all,

and is demonstrably so in some respects, to endure under the action of known causes, for an inconceivable period of time; but it has not, I think, received the impress of eternal duration in characters which man is able to decipher. The external temperature any physical conditions of our own globe may not, and probably cannot, have changed in any considerable degree since the first introduction of organic beings on its surface; but I can still only recognize in its physical state during all geological periods, a state of actual though of exceedingly slow progression, from an antecedent to some ultimate state, on the nature of which our limited powers will not enable us to offer any conjecture founded on physical research. The theories, even, of which I have been speaking, may probably appear to some persons as not devoid of presumption; but for many men they will ever be fraught with deep speculative interest:—and, let me add, no charge of presumption can justly lie against them if entered upon with that caution and modesty which ought to guide our inquiries in these remote regions of physical science.

I feel how imperfect a view I have now submitted to you of recent scientific proceedings. I have given no account of the progress of Chemistry, of Practical Mechanics, or of the sciences connected with Natural History; nor have I spoken of Ethnology, a science which, though of such recent date, is become of great interest, and one which is occupying the minds of men of great learning and profound research. I can only hope that the chair which I have now the honour to occupy, will be henceforth filled by men qualified to do full justice to these important branches of science. I trust that what I have said, however, will convey to you some idea of the activity which pervades almost every department of science.

I must not conclude this Address without some mention of what appear to me to be the legitimate objects of our Association,—nor without some allusion to circumstances calculated, I think, to give increased importance to its general working and influence.

There are probably few amongst us of whom the inquiry has not been made—after any one of our meetings—whether any striking discovery had been brought forward!—and most of us will also probably have remarked that an answer in the negative has frequently produced something like a feeling of disappointment in the inquirer. But such a feeling can arise only from a misapprehension of what I conceive to be the real and legitimate objects of the British Association. Great discoveries do not require associations to proclaim them to the world. They proclaim themselves. We do not meet to receive their announcement, or to make a display of our scientific labours in the eyes of the world, or to compliment each other on the success that we may have met with. Outward display belongs not to the proceedings, and the expression of mutual compliment belongs not to the language, of earnest-minded men. We meet, gentlemen, if I comprehend our purpose rightly, to assist and encourage each other in the performance of the laborious daily tasks of detailed scientific investigation. A great thought may possibly arise almost instantaneously in the mind,—and the intuition of genius may almost as immediately recognize its importance, and partly foresee its consequences. Individual labour may also do much in establishing the truth of a new principle of theory; but what an amount of labour may its multifarious applications involve! Nearly two centuries have not sufficed to work out all the consequences of the principle of gravitation. Every theory as it becomes more and more perfectly worked out embraces a greater number of phenomena, and requires a greater number of labourers for its complete development. Thus it is that when science has arrived at a certain stage, combination and co-operation become so essential for its further progress. Each scientific Society effects this object in a greater or less degree,—but much of its influence may be of a local character, and it is usually restricted by a limited range of its objects. Up to a certain point no means are probably so effective for the promotion of science as those particular Societies which devote themselves to one particular branch of science; but as each science expands, it

comes into nearer relations with other sciences, and a period must arrive in this general and progressive advance which must render the co-operation of the cultivators of different branches of science almost as essential to our general progress as the combination of those who cultivate the same branch was essential to the progress of each particular science in its earlier stages. It is the feeling of the necessity of combination and of facility of intercourse among men of science that has given rise to a strong wish that the scientific Memoirs of different Societies should be rendered, by some general plan, more easily and generally accessible than they are at present:—a subject which I would press on your consideration. It is by promoting this combination that the British Association has been able to exert so beneficial an influence,—by bringing scientific men together, and thus placing, as it were, in juxtaposition every Society in the country. But how has this influence been exercised? Not assuredly in the promotion of vague theories and speculative novelties; but in the encouragement of the hard daily toil of scientific research, and by the work which it has caused to be done, whether by its influence over its individual members or on the Government of the country. Regarding our Association, gentlemen, in this point of view, I can only see an increased demand for its labours, and not a termination of them, in the future progress of science. The wider the spread of science, the wider will be the sphere of its usefulness.

We should do little justice to the great Industrial Exhibition, which, two years ago, may be literally said to have delighted millions of visitors, or to the views of the illustrious Prince with whom it originated, if we should merely recollect it as a spectacle of surpassing beauty. It appears destined to exercise a lasting influence on the mental culture, and therefore, we may hope, on the moral condition, of the great mass of our population, by the impulse which it has given to measures for the promotion of general education. We may hope that those whose duty it will be to give effect to this impulse, will feel the importance of education in Science as united with education in Art. An attempt to cultivate the taste alone, independently of the more general cultivation of the mind, would probably fail, as it would deserve to do. I trust that the better education which is now so universally recognized as essential to preserve our future pre-eminence as a manufacturing nation, will have its foundations laid, not in the superficial teaching which aims only at communicating a few curious results, but in the sound teaching of the fundamental and elementary principles of science. Art ought assuredly to rest on the foundation of Science. Will it, in the present day, be contended that the study of science is unfavourable to the cultivation of taste? Such an opinion could be based only on an imperfect conception of the objects of Science, and an ignorance of all its rightful influences. Does the great sculptor or the historical painter despise anatomy? On the contrary, he knows that a knowledge of that science must constitute one of the most valuable elements of his art if he would produce the most vigorous and characteristic expression of the human figure. And so the artist should understand the structure of the leaf, the tendril, or the flower, if he would make their delicate and characteristic beauties subservient either to the objects of decorative art, or to those of the higher branches of sculpture and painting. Again, will the artist appreciate less the sublimity of the mountain, or represent its characteristic features with less truthfulness, because he is sufficient of a geologist to trace the essential relations between its external form and its internal constitution? Will the beauty of the lake be less perfectly imitated by him if he possess a complete knowledge of the laws of reflexion of light? Or will he not seize with nicer discrimination all those varied and delicate beauties which depend on the varying atmosphere of our own region, if he have some accurate knowledge of the theory of colours, and of the causes which govern the changeable aspects of mist and cloud? It is true, that the genius and acute powers of observation of the more distinguished artists may compensate, in a great degree, for the want of scientific knowledge;

but it is certain that a great part of the defects in the works of artists of every description may be traced to the defect of scientific knowledge of the objects represented. And hence it is that I express the hope that the directors of the important educational movement which is now commencing with reference to industrial objects will feel the necessity of laying a foundation, not in the complicated details of science, but in the simple and elementary principles which may place the student in a position to cultivate afterwards, by his own exertions, a more matured acquaintance with those particular branches of science which may be more immediately related to his especial avocations. If this be done, abstract science will become of increased estimation in every rank of society, and its value, with reference at least to its practical applications, will be far better understood than it is generally amongst us at the present time.

Under such circumstances, the British Association could not fail to become of increased importance, and the sphere of its usefulness to be enlarged. One great duty which we owe to the public is, to encourage the application of abstract science to the practical purposes of life—to bring, as it were, the study and the laboratory into juxtaposition with the workshop. And, doubtless, it is one great object of science to bring more easily within reach of every part of the community the rational enjoyments, as well as the necessities of life; and thus not merely to contribute to the luxuries of the rich, but to minister also to the comforts of the poor, and to promote that general enlightenment so essential to our moral progress and to the real advance of civilization. But still, we should not be taking that higher view of science which I would wish to inculcate, if we merely regarded it as the means of supplying more adequately the physical wants of man. If we would view science under its noblest aspects, we must regard it with reference to man, not merely as a creature of physical wants, but as a being of intellectual and moral endowments, fitting him to discover and comprehend some part at least of the laws which govern the material universe, to admire the harmony which pervades it, and to love and worship its Creator. It is for science, as it leads to this contemplation of Nature, and to a stronger sense of the beauties which God has spread around us, that I would claim your deeper reverence. Let us cultivate science for its own sake, as well as for the practical advantages which flow from it. Nor let it be feared lest this cultivation of what I may term contemplative science, if prosecuted in a really philosophic spirit, should inspire us with vain and presumptuous thoughts, or disqualify us for the due appreciation of moral evidence on the most sacred and important subjects which can occupy our minds. There is far more vanity and presumption in ignorance than in sound knowledge; and the spirit of true philosophy, be it ever remembered, is a patient, a modest, and a humble spirit.

At the close of this Address, a vote of thanks to the President was, as usual, passed.

DECIMAL COINAGE.

THERE will be, I trust, no impropriety in my explaining in the columns of the *Athenæum* the reasons which make it impossible for me to receive the proposals for the reformation of our monetary system expounded by "T. W. R.," in your number of last week.

On the ground of general convenience, or approximation to decimal scale, I am unable to see what would be gained, or what it is proposed to gain, by the system of T. W. R. The existing system stands thus:—

4 farthings	=	1 penny.
12 pennies	=	1 shilling.
20 shillings	=	1 pound.

For which, as I understand, T. W. R. proposes to substitute the following:—

4 new farthings	=	1 new penny.
10 new pennies	=	1 franc.
25 francs	=	1 pound.

(I have used the terms New Farthing and New Penny provisionally only, as T. W. R. has not

given names to his proposed coins. A farthing of some kind, though not mentioned by T. W. R., is imperatively required. The new farthing is the same as the mill of the Committee on Decimal Coinage; if, as I understand, T. W. R. retains the pound unaltered.)

Now, first, I remark that this is not a decimal system. The object of a decimal system, I apprehend, is to give such a series of monies of account, and of coins also if possible, that when a great number of sums of money are added together, the addition will be performed by the rules of simple addition in ordinary arithmetic; or when a sum of money is multiplied by any factor, the multiplication will be performed by the rules of simple multiplication in ordinary arithmetic, without the necessity of converting lower denominations into equivalents in a higher denomination by a process of division. Try the system of T. W. R. by this criterion. A column of new farthings is added up, and the sum is divided by 4 to convert it into new pennies. A column of new pennies is added up, and here division is not required. A column of francs is added up, and the sum is divided by 25 to convert it into pounds. This, I repeat, is not a decimal system. It stands in exactly the same relation to a decimal system as the existing coinage. Thus, in the latter, farthings must be divided by 4, pence by 12, shillings (unit column) require no division, shillings (column of tens) require to be divided by 2. One column only in each system is decimal.

Secondly, as regards general convenience, irrespective of decimal scale. In the system now in force, there are divisions by 12 and 2, for which in the system of T. W. R. a division by 25 is substituted. Which is the more convenient? I have no doubt that the world would answer with one voice that the division by 25 is more troublesome than the two divisions by 12 and 2. And in order to obtain this inconvenience, we are invited to change every one of our monies of account except only the pound. The thing appears to me totally inadmissible.

The plan of the Committee on Decimal Coinage, on the other hand, is perfectly decimal, as regards arithmetical operations, from beginning to end. It preserves the shilling,—a coin of the utmost importance in the adaptation of any system to the long-settled habits of the people of this country. In one particular only I would venture to propose a small addition to the recommendations of the Committee. I would submit that it is highly desirable that a 4-mil piece should be coined. This would differ so little from a penny that, in the trifling transactions for which the penny is used as an integer, it might be very well employed; at the same time that it would be so distinct in appearance as to prevent any confusion in exchange during the short period in which both would circulate. It might also be so well distinguished from the 5-mil piece as to present no inconvenience in their concurrent circulation, which might be maintained until experience had decided that one ought to be withdrawn.

I have not seen the letter in the *Times* to which T. W. R. alludes; but, after frequent and careful consideration, I am satisfied that the importance which (it appears) is there attributed to the preservation of the exact value of the penny is far too great. To no class whatever—even the lowest—is the penny important until it rises by aggregation to the shilling. In all ordinary uses of the penny, it is employed only as a subdivision of the shilling, or first silver coin, which may be conveniently replaced by any other subdivision of nearly the same absolute value. In no instance whatever is a bargain made depending on the accurate value of the penny except where the contract is for such large quantities that the penny is obviously a mere element of subdivision of the shilling or the pound. In the few instances in which the contract actually terminates within the range of copper coins,—there are some (as omnibus-fares, varying from 1d. to 3d. for the same distance) in which the extravagant difference of price shows that nothing depends on the accuracy of the coin; while in others (as small cakes, small balls of twine, small pieces of inferior meat, small parcels of tea and sugar, &c.) the variations which may be made in the quantity and

quality of the article supplied afford abundant means of proportioning the ware to the sum paid, in whatever coin, under the ordinary laws of competition. I am well aware that, in a change of coinage, inconvenience must be produced somewhere; but I am satisfied that the change of the penny will produce small absolute inconvenience, and less than would be produced by the change of any other coin.

The adjustment of the postage stamps may yet require consideration. Perhaps I may suggest that on other grounds of policy it would be well to discourage the sale of single stamps. It is mainly in this transaction that the temptations to dishonesty occur; and the frauds in the Ipswich and other post-offices appear to have arisen entirely from it. Adopting the system of the Decimal Coinage Committee, I would propose for consideration the following prices of postage stamps:—

For a single stamp	5 mils.
For 2	9 "
For 3	13 "
For 4	17 "
For 5	21 "
For 6	25 " equivalent to 6d.

As the vast majority of stamps are sold in numbers exceeding six, this would leave the revenue exactly as it is.

I have now only to advert to the assimilation of our coinage to the French, which appears to be the real foundation of the proposal of T. W. R. And here I must remark that, in my opinion, an undue importance is attached to the close connexion of the coinages in the two countries. I think that, of 10,000 British persons,—

1 (perhaps) is habitually or usually employed in commercial transactions with France, Belgium, or Sardinia.

20 spend half a year each in the course of his life in one of those countries. (I except permanent residents, who are to all purposes Frenchmen.)

8,000 have money transactions and money calculations every day of their lives in English money.

(These numbers may be changed in the most extravagant degree without affecting my argument.)

Now, I ask, is it worth while to make such a change as that proposed by T. W. R., which would produce great present confusion and some permanent inconvenience to the 8,000, for the sake of the very trifling convenience to the 21? Surely not. Nor is it needed. The double florin approaches so near in value to the 5-francs that the change of rouleaus of écus, of which T. W. R. speaks, can be effected now with a very small balance. It cannot by any change (while England preserves her gold standard and France her silver standard) be made at all times exactly equal.

Totally different from this, in its effects, would be the change proposed by the system of the Decimal Coinage Committee, which would facilitate every computation to every one of the 8,000 persons on every day of his life.

I do not deny that there would be advantage in assimilating the coinage of different countries; but I see only one plan which offers the smallest hope of ultimately effecting it. It is the introduction of pure decimal scale into each country. If nothing more is done, the coins of one country will then be very easily convertible into the coins of another country. For complete assimilation, the value of every coin in one country must afterwards be changed in a uniform proportion,—a process which may sometimes be easier than a partial change.

A. B. G.

September 5, 1853.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

THE town and neighbourhood of Nottingham have had, as our readers know, a magnificent offer made to them by Mr. Lawson of Bath; but there seems to be reason for fear that the offer may not be met in a similar spirit, and that the project of a Midland Counties Observatory will fail for want of popular support. As will be well remembered, Mr. Lawson about a year ago proposed to give his valuable collection of astronomical and

meteorological instruments to the public of Nottingham, on the very reasonable condition that a sum of 10,000*l.* should be raised for building and other purposes, so as to secure the benefits of a permanent stellar inspection from a central position of the island:—and to this fund he himself subscribed the first 1,000*l.* Up to this time the remainder has not been raised. After a year's canvassing, conducted with we know not how much or how little zeal, the entire sum placed by the public at the disposal of the Committee, exclusive of Mr. Lawson's donation, amounts, according to the *Nottinghamshire Guardian*, to no more than 3,500*l.* Under these circumstances, the offer seems likely to be rescinded. In a letter recently written to the managers Mr. Lawson says, "I can no longer, from my age and state of health, leave my offer or plan an open question; but must withdraw it altogether on the 1st of October next, if the requisite sum of 10,000*l.* is not ready to fulfil or carry into effect my engagement with the public." The failure—should it prove a failure—of this noble and useful project will be a theme of lasting regret. There is work for more observers than are now employed in watching the heavens, and doubtless there are great discoveries yet to be made—as witness the planets found by Mr. Hind, and the fame conferred on the Regent's Park Observatory. We trust there may still be time to secure Mr. Lawson's magnificent offer; its withdrawal at the expiration of the month would be a serious reproach to the inhabitants of the Midland Counties.

The *Dublin Evening Post* announces the grant, by Her Majesty, of a pension of 80*l.* a year—"out of the Literary Fund," says the *Post*, by some confusion of ideas—to the Rev. William Hickey, the popular agricultural writer under the well-known name of "Martin Doyle."

A University for Australia has been founded and endowed by the local legislature at Sydney; and our latest tidings from that colony speak of a project being on foot to establish a new college in connexion with the University there for educating Ministers of the English Church. The proposal is of some public interest; not only so far as every extension of the machinery of education is of interest, but also as a preliminary step towards the educational independence of the colonies settled by us across the line. That Australians should be able to find a good scholastic training in Australia, is one of those propositions which no reasonable person will dispute. Yet it involves to a certain extent the relaxation of ancient ties between the colony and the parent state. Colleges and Universities in Australia will be necessarily Australian rather than English in sentiment, in method, and in ideas:—just as the seminaries of America—whether great or small—became the nurseries of a new national spirit in the several colonies which afterwards joined in a common issue against this country. This development is in the order of time and the nature of things. It could not be prevented even if it were considered politic to attempt prevention. But, seeing that in the natural course of things some of the old intellectual links are breaking, it is surely desirable that those who have authority in the matter, whose action now may be prolific hereafter for good or for ill, should consider how far it may be possible to create new or to sustain old ties. The material bonds are strong no doubt between England and Australia; but we take it that the intellectual bonds, though less palpable, are far stronger. The children of the two lands lisp the same lines—drink at a common fountain of thought—grow up in daily intercourse with the same masters of human emotion. This bond of a common literature may possibly become the only permanent and powerful one between us and our southern progeny:—and we think it is of vast importance that every fiscal and other restriction should be removed as speedily as possible from the books which are the common bread of life to the two countries.

The project for a public park has been started in Blackburn, notwithstanding the recent failure of a similar project in Bolton. A site has been selected,—and plans are in course of preparation. An idea has been suggested—a good one, and

worth consideration elsewhere—for providing baths in the new park instead of in a more isolated place.

Subscriptions continue to be received from foreign countries by the Committee for the Jenner Monument; but the position of England on the subscription-list to this world's memorial of services acknowledged and gratitude expressed, we are sorry to say, is not yet such as becomes its own honour, its relation to the benefactor of mankind, and its pride in his great name. Prince Albert has sent a cheque for 25*l.* to the Committee:—for the credit of our country in the eyes of other nations, we should like to see the example of the Prince largely followed.

Our attention has been drawn to a paper in the *Association Medical Journal* on Medical Meteorology. The object of the paper is, to draw the attention of medical men to the importance of the registration of disease in connexion with the conditions of the atmosphere. We have often pointed out the present unsatisfactory method of generalizing with regard to the influence of climate and weather on the results of disease. The only documents of any value for this purpose that we possess are those of the Registrar-General, and they are far too vague to give anything like precision to the inferences that may be drawn from them. The following supposed case, from the paper alluded to, illustrates our remark:—"A patient was seized by an attack of bronchitis on the 7th of April in any year, and during the prevalence of a cold north-easterly wind; that the patient died on the 14th; and that on the 17th the death was registered; but meanwhile, that, on the 13th, the wind had changed to a mild south-westerly breeze; it is obvious that the registration of the death on the 17th could have no value as a medico-meteorological fact." The facts that are wanted to be of value in such a case are, the dates of the first seizure and the state of the weather previous to that time. A moist and warm atmosphere, or a cold and dry one, may suddenly set in and terminate a number of cases which have been very variously commenced. In order to supply the information desired, the *Association Medical Journal* has undertaken to publish Meteorological Tables in connexion with the history of particular cases of disease. In this way we have no doubt that some important facts will be elicited. Already the physiologist is in possession of a large number of facts which show the influence of the great forces of Nature on the life of the organic world; and the prosecution of this subject by the medical man will be but the following out of these researches, and giving to us a more intimate knowledge of the laws which control the existence of organic beings on the earth.

The papers of the week have reported the death, in Australia, of Mr. Shaw,—well known in the agricultural districts as editor of the *Mark Lane Express*, and managing director of the Farmers' Insurance Society. "He emigrated," it is said, "somewhat suddenly; and, after passing through extreme adversity in Melbourne, he went to the diggings, where he became ill, and died in great poverty."

The ingenious persons who got up a short time ago a number of friendly addresses from certain towns in England to other towns in France—and who appeared to select the town on Fluelen's literal principle, Colchester making curtsies to Caen, Leeds to Lille, Manchester to Mulhausen—have obtained a permanent record of their laudable efforts in the cause of peace and good fellowship. The men of Lille, as the manner of Frenchmen is, have struck a medal commemorating "the good understanding which exists between France and England," and sent a number of impressions to the Mayor of Leeds. The Mayor "appreciates in the most lively manner this gracious mode of perpetuating and confirming the friendship of two great cities and two great nations." The medals are deposited in the cabinets of the Leeds Literary and Philosophical Society.

Last advices from America tell us that the Library of Congress, so lately damaged by the fire at Washington, has been re-opened. We notice this as showing with what care and readiness our cousins on the western shores of the great waters look

to literary interests. In our rambles through the book-shops of London, we have lately found innumerable traces of American activity in the book-buying line. All the good editions of old books are rising in value: within these dozen years memoirs and collections of the contemporary literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in this country have advanced in price from 30 to 100 per cent. Partly, no doubt, this advance arises from the fact of greater attention being paid to historical matters:—the day when a Minister of the Crown might confess, as in the anecdote told by Mr. Macaulay, that he had never heard of "Empson and Dudley" being past. But the rise has been occasioned chiefly by the growth of a large demand for such books in America. Congress has two agents in London,—one literary, one political; and we fancy the former is the more active and important functionary of the two. One of these agents has his head-quarters in Piccadilly, and his papers accredit him to the Court of St. James's:—the other has his quarters at Charing Cross, and his commission is to the book-stalls of London streets. We could tell the story of many a literary treasure which has found its way—sometimes at the price of "an old song"—into this officer's hands, and thence into the archives and libraries of the United States. He is always on the spot,—he has a liberal discretion in his purchases,—and he never throws away a good thing for lack of power or appreciation. With such agencies at its service, we need not feel surprise that accidental losses of literary treasure, whether by fire or by flood, are speedily repaired in the United States.

While speaking of America, we may mention, that, according to the last number of the *New York Herald*, experiments are making at the Great Exhibition there as to the possibility or feasibility of lighting the interior of the building up at night. It is said, that the first experiment, with four thousand gas-burners, was effective and successful.

Letters from Switzerland announce the successful ascent by three Zurich Professors of the highest mountain of western Switzerland, Mount Toedi, in the Canton of Glaris. This is only the third recorded ascent of the mountain in question.

An edict has just appeared in Florence prohibiting any subject of the very Grand Duke of Tuscany from subscribing towards the proposed monument to Gioberti. Here is another illustration of the changes to which fame is subject in the Italy of our day:—only six years ago Gioberti was received in Florence with a public ovation like that which attended the entry of an ancient conqueror. The citizens made him an idol, and the Grand Duke who would refuse him a grave was then his warmest worshipper. Yet, Gioberti was the same then as on the day of his death—a scholar, a courageous writer, an eloquent orator. The powers at that time coquetted with literature,—pretended to tolerate thought, and to base themselves on reason and logic. The weapon is changed in those latitudes:—the pen is replaced by the musket.

The Scientific Congress of France has just held its twentieth annual Session at Arras:—under the Presidency of the Baron de Stassart, President of the Academy of Belgium.

There is talk of erecting a monument in the principal Place of Lincourt to the venerable Duke de la Rochefoucauld. His titles are, the introduction of vaccination into France,—the establishment there of Savings Banks (*Caisse d'épargne*)—and the Institution of the School of Arts and Trades (*Ecole des Arts et Métiers*) of Châlons.

A brig of war, bearing the stars and stripes of the United States at her masthead, is now lying in the Southampton Waters, and engaging the attention of practical and scientific men. She is called the *Dolphin*; and her object in the Atlantic is, to procure the data desired by Congress for the use of Lieut. Maury. She left Chesapeake Bay three months ago. Her first task was, to strike a line from that bay to Rockule, on the west coast of Scotland, and take soundings at intervals of a hundred miles along it. From Rockule a second line was run to the Azores; a

little to the north of which a ridge, 6,000 feet in height from the ocean bed, was discovered,—the soil on this elevation being a fine yellow, chalky substance, mixed with fine sand. From the Azores the explorer made a westerly cut,—everywhere finding bottom, and everywhere noting the set of tides and currents, and the temperature of the water. The *Dolphin* next steered for the Three Chimnies, where she found bottom at a depth of 1,900 fathoms. The greatest depth of water was found in lat. 41° to 43°, long. 51° to 56°,—where the line fell out 3,130 fathoms. In a few days the *Dolphin* will have completed her outfit,—when she will make for the eastern side of the Azores, and pursue this series of important discoveries. The *Dolphin* is admirably fitted up for her work, and her sounding apparatus is the finest ever seen in Europe. Hitherto a continuous series of soundings in deep water has been rendered difficult by the fact of each sounding costing the ship a fresh line; however strongly the line was made, when once out it has never been recovered. The Americans have invented a mode by which the weight on touching the bottom is detached,—so that the line may be drawn back with ease. We borrow from the *Daily News* an account of this ingenious contrivance:—"A hole is drilled through a 64 lb. or heavier shot, sufficiently large to admit a rod of about three-quarters of an inch in diameter. This rod is about 12 or 14 inches in length, and with the exception of about 1½ inch at the bottom, perfectly solid. At the top of the rod are two arms extending one from each side. These arms being upon easily acting hinges, are capable of being raised or lowered with very little power. A small branch extends from the outside of each of them, which is for the purpose of holding by means of rings a piece of wire by which the ball is swung to the rod. A piece of rope is then attached by each end to the arms, to which again is joined the sounding line. The ball is then lowered into the water, and upon reaching the bottom the strain upon the line ceases, and the arms fall down, allowing the ball to detach itself entirely from the rod, which is then easily drawn in,—the drilled portion of which is discovered to be filled with a specimen of that which it has come in contact with at the bottom." With this apparatus, aided by the host of assistants—whom Lieut. Maury's visit to Europe will doubtless bring to the great work of exploration, the ocean bed may become in time as well known to us as the bed of the Thames or that of the Hudson.

COLOSSEUM, Regent's Park.—Admission 1*s.*—The original PANORAMA of LONDON BY DAY is exhibited Daily from half-past Ten till Five. The extraordinary PANORAMA of LONDON BY NIGHT, from Seven till Ten. Music from Two till Five, and during the evening, several favourite Songs by Miss A. Poole.

CYCLOPAMA, Albany Street.—LISBON AND EARTHQUAKE.—This celebrated and unique Moving Panorama, representing the destruction of Lisbon by Earthquake in 1755, is exhibited Daily, at Three; Evening, at Eight o'clock.—Admission, 1*s.*; Children and Schools, half-price to either Exhibition.

ROYAL GALLERY OF ILLUSTRATION, 14, Regent Street.—ST. PETERSBURGH and CONSTANTINOPLE are exhibited immediately preceding the DIORAMA of the OCEAN MAIL (via the Cape) to INDIA and AUSTRALIA.—Daily, at 3 and 8. Admission, 1*s.*; Stalls, 2*s.* 6*d.*; Reserved Seats, 5*s.*; Children, Half-price.

GOLD NUGGETS at the GREAT GLOBE.—A Large Collection of AUSTRALIAN GOLD, together with Rocks, Minerals, and Precious Stones of Australia, at Mr. WYLD'S LARGE MODEL of the EARTH, Leicester Square. Lectures hourly upon every subject of Geographical Science.—Open daily from 10 to 10. Children under 12 years of age and Schools, half-price.

AZTEC LILLIPUTIANS' LAST SIX DAYS IN LONDON. at the MARIONETTE THEATRE, Lowther Arcade, Strand, as they leave for the Provinces on Saturday, September 17th. All who have not seen these Extraordinary beings—the New Race of People hitherto unknown or supposed to be fabulous—lose no time, they are the Wonders of the Human Creation, having no resemblance to anything on Earth but the Sculptures of Nineteenth Century Central America. Open every Day from 11 till 1, 3 till 5, and 7 till 10.—Admission, 1*s.*

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.—PATRON:—H.R.H. PRINCE ALBERT.—CHANGE of the LECTURE on "THE THAMES."—THE SECOND PART of an HISTORICAL LECTURE on "THE THAMES," from its Source to its Estuary, by GEORGE BUCKLAND, Esq., assisted by Miss Blanche Esq., with NEW SCENES and NEW DISSOLVING SCENERY, on Tuesdays and Fridays at Four o'clock, and every Evening except Saturday at Nine.—Lectures: By J. H. PEPPEL, Esq., on PHOTOGRAPHY, with Illustrations, Mornings and Evenings.—By Dr. BUCHHEIM, on ELECTRO-GILDING and SILVERING.—The LANCASHIRE SEWING MACHINE exhibited in Use and explained Daily.—Open Mornings and Evenings. Admission, 1*s.*; Schools, and Children under Ten years of age, Half-price.

FINE ARTS

ART COMPETITIONS.

The principle of competition for the execution of works of Art, to which we called attention last week, is growing into such universal practice, and has so many plausibilities to recommend it, that we think it well to return to the subject once more, for the purpose of examining further into the value of those plausibilities, and enforcing at greater length the guarantees by which alone the benefits of the principle can be secured.

We have already said, that if the beneficial results of the system are to be obtained, it is absolutely essential that all the conditions of a competition shall be stringently observed. There are other breaches of these conditions than the particular one to which we alluded last week by which the principle of competition is made to operate unjustly. Indeed, a competition is a contract, to which the Committees summoning it and all the competitors are parties,—and all the separate terms of competition laid down are so many absolute covenants binding alike on all. No relaxation can be admitted in favour of one competitor which is not a direct wrong to the others:—in fact, men working under varieties of condition are not competing at all, in the strict and logical sense of the word. Thus, if an extension of the time originally limited be conceded to certain of the parties to a competition, of which all had not the benefit,—injustice is wrought in more ways than one. In the first place, the secrets of an artist's studio cannot, with whatever precautions taken, be closely kept; and he who is allowed to work after the models of his neighbours are complete has a chance of drawing the prize of thought which may not have been originally his own. In the next place, so far as time is an important element of the means towards the work proposed, it is thus partially distributed,—and an advantage is given to certain artists which is a direct deduction from the rights of the rest. Even if the time were not an essential element, if the shorter time were ample for the work in hand,—then, it is ample for one as it is for the other, and the wrong takes this form—that the artists who conscientiously wrought within it, probably laid aside other arrangements to enable them to do so (which the time-defaulter did not), and would have been gainers elsewhere if they might have had the use of the extra time which it is now proposed to give to some of the competitors. We know of an existing competition—to which because it is existing, we do not more particularly allude—in which a certain amount of injustice, though not to any great or premeditated extent, has been already wrought in this respect. We hear, for instance, of one sculptor, the arrangements of whose studio drove him at the last moment to employ the aid of five persons in the getting up of his work, so as to meet to the letter the directions of the advertisement summoning him to compete,—at a cost the whole of which he might have saved, could he have reckoned on the laxity afterwards practised as to the time allowed for the reception of models.—Indeed, we repeat, that no departure, of any kind, from the prescribed limitations can take place without converting the justice which competition in its principle aims at securing into a practical injustice.

It is only by facing all the evils that are inherent in, or incident to, a particular principle, that we can arrive at the means of turning that principle to good account. We pointed last week to a vice inherent in the system of competition—that it calls into action an amount of work and aspiration a small proportion of which only it proposes to remunerate or satisfy. But in addition to this, the system has incidental qualities which are a snare to all the parties concerned. There is no doubt that general competitions, like Art Unions, have a tendency to lower the standard of Art. In the first place, the committees who have charge of such matters, unless they take counsel from without themselves, are not always fit judges of the relative values of works of Art,—and are less likely to select the best out of a number of models sent in for competition, than they would have

been to obtain a fine work of Art from some single sculptor whose established reputation was a credential bestowed by competent authority. In the former case many errors lie in wait for them which are avoided in the latter. Then, the announcement of a general competition brings into the field—on some vague, dreamy hope of, they scarcely know what—young and inexperienced artists, who lavish their fancy—wholly irrespective of means, and unconscious of the grand epic simplicity of high sculpture—on models which, if chance should unhappily deal to them the prize, they are utterly unable to carry out on the large scale, in whole or in part. The mere goldsmith's modeller soars for the occasion, hardly knowing what it is that he would undertake, into a candidate for the execution of a great work of sculpture in marble or in bronze. The models of such men are often showy things; and the selecting Committee, if it have not fortified itself by some competent Art opinion, has generally in it some members who—ignorant that an aggregation of inexpressive figures is not a work of high Art—and that the clear and simple, though elevated, utterance of some thought placing the Subject distinctly and nobly before the eye, is true sculpture—are apt to be seduced by them. We have seen models sent in to competitions which the clever authors could not themselves have carried out on the large scale at any price—and which no sculptor, whatever his experience or his resources, could execute for four times the sum offered on the occasion. If by any unhappy chance the selection of a Committee should fall on one of these, the disappointment which awaits themselves is greater than that which, under any circumstances, the artist has to undergo.

It will be seen from these remarks, added to our observations of last week, that while the subject is full of difficulties, none of them are insuperable,—and that the principle of competition is, after all, a sound one, if no mistake be made in the manner of dealing with it.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—A new building of architectural pretensions, the St. George's Hall, has just been opened in Bradford:—a town not wanting in either wealth or public spirit, but singularly deficient in those forms of exterior grace and beauty on which a stranger's eye can rest with any satisfaction. Like most other Yorkshire towns, Bradford has hitherto paid little attention to the Arts. Its streets are poor, its rows of houses heavy and monotonous. The erection of a new hall for public meetings will doubtless have some favourable influence on the growing taste of the town's folk; for unless the artistic sense be awakened in the masses, it is in vain to expect the streets of a busy town ever to attain to that harmony of forms and outlines—that picturesqueness of combined effects—which characterize nearly every vista in cities such as Venice, Genoa, Oxford, and Brussels. The new structure is of stone,—the style, Composite Greek. The large hall is highly ornamented:—but, as if to show expressly how much a stranger in the town is good taste, the ground-floor of this handsome edifice has been arranged as a cheap eating-house!

A paragraph having gone the round of the papers to the effect that the Dutch and Flemish pictures of Lord Bute were about to be placed in a gallery in Edinburgh for public exhibition, accompanied by a statement that the late Marquis designed to bequeath them to the nation, but that the intention failed in consequence of his sudden death before a written form of bequest had been made out,—Mr. Shaw has written to the *Edinburgh Courier*, to correct these statements. It appears from Mr. Shaw's letter that as Lord Bute's pictures were lying at the Pantheon in London, and the directors of the Royal Institution of Edinburgh were anxious to have them placed, during the owner's pleasure, in their galleries,—on application to the Marquis, he consented that they should be so temporarily placed under charge of the trustees. Lord Bute, however, died before the proposed arrangement could be effected, and the trustees of the will were advised that they could not carry out a verbal promise. Mr.

Shaw concludes by saying:—"It is, therefore, a mistake that his Lordship contemplated making a bequest of the pictures to the nation; and I have no doubt the statement as to the executors having agreed to allow them to be exhibited in Edinburgh is also erroneous."

The restoration of the tower of Saint Jacques de la Boucherie, in Paris—one of the most striking and most neglected fragments of antiquity in the capital—has been ordered by the authorities.

We have said again and again that the Palace of Glass, both as an industrial exponent and an order of architecture, is making the tour of the world. In the latter character, a new triumph awaits it in Paris, according to the journals of that capital. M. Charpentier, the architect, is said to have obtained a concession of the garden of the Palais Royal for a term of thirty-six years, for the purpose of erecting thereon a structure of the kind to inclose a Winter Garden. At the termination of the thirty-six years, the Garden—with its Palace, of course,—will revert to the nation.

If canards were not as "plenty as blackberries" just now in the foreign journals, few people would read the last announcement of the French *Patrie* without a smile. This journal avers, that the Parthenon at Athens is "to be completely restored." The general who told his soldiers that if they lost or injured any of the friezes he would insist on their replacing them by others as good, did not threaten more curiously than the *Patrie* now vaticinates. Completely restore the Parthenon! Our lively contemporary either does not contemplate any opposition on the part of the British Museum, the Louvre, the Königliches Museum,—or he fancies that the Emperor has only to send an order to the peasants of Attica to rebuild the crowning architectural glory of Greece!—The edifice, we should add, is to be restored after the fashion of the Paris Pantheon, and converted into a Catholic church. Here the ingenuity of the proposer and the difficulty of the whole scheme become more and more apparent. His project wants explanatory notes. For instance, how he is to amalgamate the two ideas, and reconcile the Pagan and the Catholic Divinities who of necessity embody each, is a mystery that none but the head which conceived the thought is likely to solve. Of course there is no possible restoration of the Parthenon without Minerva—anything else is a contradiction in terms. How does the *Patrie*, then, propose to reconcile the classical deity with the Virgin!

An interesting Exhibition is about to open at Amsterdam. The citizens of this commercial depot have resolved to hold in their most picturesque and interesting town a series of public exhibitions illustrating the past and present state of the great departments of industry. Each year will be devoted to a particular subject:—sculpture, painting, architecture, ship-building, manufactures of various kinds, and so forth. The idea is a good one; and the network of railway and river communications extending from Calais and Ostend to the Rhine and the Elbe, will remove many of the inconveniences attending on a trip to a rather out of the way place.—The present exhibition, announced to be open on the 15th instant, has for its subject, Architecture. It is proposed to exhibit specimens of building materials, instruments and utensils, machines for raising masses to great elevations, plans of structures, ancient and modern, fancy designs, models of all sorts of edifices, churches, temples, mosques, palaces, pagodas, ornaments used in decorating, and the like. The enterprise is said to have won the general approbation of the Hollanders.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

DRURY LANE.—On Monday this theatre commenced, for a short season, with the legitimate drama:—the principal characters for twenty-four nights to be supported, as we had already announced, by Mr. Gustavus Brooke. The theatrical advertisements stated that this gentleman had completely recovered the use of his vocal organ,—and we can confirm that assurance with our own testimony. Mr. Brooke's *Othello* (for that

was the part selected for the opening) appeared in this respect quite as fine as it did on the night of his original *début* in London, at the Olympic. Mr. Brooke is beyond doubt the most brilliant executant that we have on the stage; and under these favourable circumstances, the blended force and facility of his performance may be readily imagined. The house was crowded, and the applause to the actor's more powerful examples of elocution was loud and long.

Mr. Brooke's style has a general resemblance to Mr. Vandenhoff's—and in the use of certain ponderous tones and broad emphases the resemblance amounts almost to identity. It is to the judicious use of these vocal elements that the success, in particular passages, of both actors may be traced. Both, too, have the same general fault,—that of painting character in large masses of light and shade, and neglecting the more delicate expressions which intimate subtle feeling and those nice phases of emotion which indicate the highest intellectual art. Were Mr. Brooke's intelligence equal to his executive powers—had his mental refinement and sensibility been rightly cultivated,—he might certainly take rank with the highest histrionic names. But we recognize in him too much of the mere actor,—of the man who by practice has acquired stage-tact, and by nature possesses physical powers to produce the most startling occasional effects. These, taken by themselves, are wonderful in their kind and degree, but they are mainly gymnastic in their character. Full justice, however, should be rendered to a performer who can always by efforts of style throw a crowded audience into ecstasy. Mr. Brooke, always dignified in his deportment, is sometimes very tender; and when he lists, can be as melodious as natural in his delivery. We may instance the two great bravura passages in the third and fourth acts:—"Farewell, the tranquil mind,"—and "Had it pleased Heaven to try me with affliction." In both, Mr. Brooke's musical intonation exceeded everything of the kind that we have heard since the elder Kean. The same may be said of his parting address:—there was the same affectionate lingering on the syllables that distinguished his great predecessor's enunciation as—

Dropt tears as fast as the Arabian trees
Their medicinal gum.

—Mr. Brooke, however, sinned against taste in his exhibition of the physical agony in the death-sigh,—which was calculated to shock, not to please.

The management on this occasion has collected an excellent company. Mr. Davenport, as *Iago*, performed with an ease and efficiency very noteworthy. Throughout, he evidently aimed at artistic excellence,—and to a great extent he succeeded. Mr. Bennett was powerful in *Brabantio*; and a new actor, Mr. Leslie, showed considerable skill in *Roderigo*. A Mrs. Leslie as *Emilia* was not wanting in energy; and Miss Anderton in *Desdemona* was respectable,—though deficient in sweetness of utterance and somewhat obtrusive in action. We should recommend this actress to study the description of *Desdemona* given by her father,—

A maiden never bold;
Of spirit so still and quiet, that her motion
Blushed at itself.

—On the death-bed, Miss Anderton struggled, in almost an erect position, with *Othello* for her life, in a manner that made it a positive fight. This was out of character, even in the presence of an extreme so desperate.

The tragedy was followed by a new extravaganza on an old subject, by Mr. Kingdom, called 'The Fountain of Beauty,' at which *King Pretty* washes himself straight. This character was well sung by Miss Featherstone. The appointments of the piece were sufficiently pictorial; but the piece itself, even as a burlesque, is worthless. The rhymes are very bad, the jokes coarse and vulgar, and the whole colouring and treatment of the theme utterly contemptible.

SADLER'S WELLS.—'The School for Scandal' was revived here on Thursday week. Great care seemed to have been taken in its getting-up; and the drama on the whole was so well personated and received, as to afford hope that high-class comedy may, after all, be planted on this stage. The

Sir Peter Teazle of Mr. Phelps is a pleasing example of his power to individualize. Miss Cooper, whose *physique* has evidently improved, succeeded remarkably well in *Lady Teazle*.—Mr. Marston's *Charles Surface* was spirited and elegant,—and the rest of the characters were respectably filled. The house was numerously attended.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—It is with sincere regret that we read of the sudden death of Mr. John Wilkins, the author of the drama of 'Civilization.' Our readers are aware that with this production a new order of "things theatrical" appeared to commence,—inasmuch as its success gave proof that at a theatre merely popular, and removed by its locality from all fashionable influence, original works might be successfully brought out and win their way even to patent theatres. We have already informed the public that Mr. Wilkins was "a poor player" at a suburban house; and we endeavoured to distinguish him with all the greater credit for having worked his way through such impediments as this position implies to distinction as a successful dramatist. That success, however, did not relieve him from the necessity of pursuing his vocation as a histrionic subordinate, and on Saturday week he performed *Hecate* at Sadler's Wells Theatre:—on the following Monday he was a corpse. At that performance he appeared to be in remarkably good health, and intoned the text with uncommon force. —We hear that he has left a widow and a family of fatherless children in a state of destitution.

Among other artists engaged by Mr. Wigan for his coming campaign at the Olympic Theatre, we hear of Mrs. Stirling, Miss P. Horton, Mr. Emery, and Mr. Robson.

M. Berlioz, we perceive, has been giving two grand concerts of his music at Frankfurt,—the journals add, with great success.

Times have changed in Prussia since the days when Frederick the Great, who loved to play at musical composition, used to draw his pen through any chord too severe which his Composer in Ordinary, Quantz, introduced into His imperial Majesty's essays, with a contemptuous "O! this smells of the Church!" Now, the odour ecclesiastical is in favour with Royalty; since we perceive by the foreign journals that the soldiers of the Prussian army are to be taught part-singing, with the express view of their taking part in the services of public worship. Hitherto, the only military contributions to the performances of the Temple have been, the curious *fanfaronades* and the roll of drums which in certain Catholic countries accompany the elevation of the wafer at high mass.

The dead season for French opera seems already over:—since the *Théâtre Lyrique* has been giving 'La Moissonneuse,' a new production, for the reopening of its campaign; while M. Halévy's new work 'Nabob,'—has just been represented at the *Opéra Comique*. Of the latter we may shortly speak more at length.

Meanwhile, as bearing on the present state of musical education in Europe,—and illustrating the caprices in progress and decay which so greatly perplex a philosophical historian of the art,—we call attention to some paragraphs which have recently appeared in *Le Ménestrel*, a musical journal of Paris. It appears, that M. Roqueplan, unable in France to get together an operative company for the *Académie* (which in its prime possessed at once a Cinti, a Falcon, a Dorus, a Nourrit, a Dérisis, a Dupont, a Levasseur,—all French singers), has been led to look to foreigners: and has made magnificent proposals to Signor Tambrlik, to Herr Formes, and to Mdlle. Cruvelli,—all of whom have declined in favour of more congenial occupation elsewhere, or of better offers.—At the same time, it is observable that almost every provincial journal of France contains some new testimony to the inability of managerial skill to satisfy public exigence,—some new tale of company after company broken up, because the *stalles* and *loges* have refused to accredit the *Valentine* or the *Fernand* set before them. This has led to the absurd municipal announcement which figures at the head of certain play-bills prohibiting all open expressions of disapproval on the occasion of *débuts*,

—and to the no less queer paragraphs in the local papers registering the state of the poll by ballot according to the result of which new candidates are blessed or banned—admitted or rejected!—(How the singers, by the way, endure the tameness and matter-of-fact formality of such a proceeding, we have been totally unable to discover.)—But *Le Ménestrel* affords stronger and stranger financial facts, derived from the memorial "put in" by Signor Corti on the occasion of his relinquishing the lessee-ship of the Italian Opera of Paris. In this it was stated that the demands of Mdlle. Alboni and of Madame Gristi and Signor Mario (both given roundly in figures) made all treaty with them impossible,—the latter lady and gentleman having appealed (it is added) to their American engagement as justifying the enormous terms demanded by them in case they should condescend to remain in Europe.—Nor is America the only lion in the poor old-world manager's path now-a-days:—Signor Corti having further stated that Madame de la Grange has been snatched away from him by Russia. Now, it might have been fancied that when first-rate, and even second-rate, artists are so able to choose how and where they can amass such glorious fortunes,—the supply of what may be called secondary and tolerable singers should at least be equal to the demand:—whereas composers cannot be produced by any educational process,—training will mature and present singers of talent so long as the natural material of voice is presented to the professor. Yet it is obvious that the number of good, and even of fair, vocal artists and musicians is insufficient to keep the standard of remuneration within anything like reasonable bounds. The causes of an inequality as perplexing as it is obvious claim a more provident and serious consideration than they have yet met with on the part of any interested in the maintenance and prosperity of the musical drama.

There seems to be the usual stir making in the theatres of Paris with the view of providing novelties for the coming season. Among the works most highly spoken of by expectation are, a new five-act historical comedy by M. A. Dumas, which has been just "cast" at the *Théâtre Français*,—and a new drama, by Madame Dudevant, which is forthcoming at the *Gymnase*.—At the *Vaudeville* has just been produced a dramatized version of Mr. Dickens's 'Battle of Life,' which seems likely to have "a long run."—But the importation from England apparently the most in Parisian vogue at present is, Mr. Flexmore, our eccentric mime and clown,—and some of the journals, more zealous in commending than they seem apt at comprehending his peculiar gifts and graces, have fitted up on the occasion their own new version of an old word, which may perhaps in its turn become French of Paris,—as "boulgrin," "bouldegues," and "steplechase" have done before it. They admire the English droll as being the complete type of the "kocney"!

MISCELLANEA

Jacquard Loom.—Two nieces of Jacquard, the well-known inventor of the loom which bears his name, have been compelled, by poverty, to offer for sale the Gold Medal bestowed by Louis the Eighteenth on their uncle. The sum asked was simply the intrinsic value of the gold, 20*l*. The Chamber of Commerce of Lyons, becoming acquainted with the circumstance, agreed to become the purchasers of it for 24*l*. "Such," says the French Journal, the *Cosmos*, "is the gratitude of the manufacturing interest of Lyons for a man to whom it owes so large a portion of its splendour."

Chinese Play-Bill.—Our readers may not be indisposed to see a copy of a Chinese Play-bill,—that they may learn how theatrical matters are managed in Penang.—"Theatre Royal (opposite to Fish Market).—On Thursday next there will be a performance of the Chinese actors at the Theatre Royal, by a special permission, when eighty actors and several actresses will have the honour to perform Historical Dramas, comprising:—History of the Ancient War.—First Part. Formerly there were seven kingdoms in China, each having a ruler or king of its own. The principal, named Chin, was the largest and most powerful; it possessed a

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great army and made war upon all the others. Not being able to withstand their great enemy, they were obliged to submit, and to pay an annual tribute; for the true performance of this obligation they sent a royal son as hostage, and surrendered a large part of their territories. But notwithstanding their submission, the kingdom of Chin was dissatisfied with the six kingdoms, and again made war upon them. At this juncture there was a poor and indigent man and an orator, and who persuaded the six kingdoms to resist the aggressor, saying 'Let us unite as one man to resist the powerful Chin—I also will aid you.' The wisdom of Soh-Chin prevailed, and when the king of Chin found that the whole six kingdoms combined against him he sued for peace. To mark the achievements of Soh-Chin, a palace was erected for him, and he was invested with the royal authority over the six kingdoms, and great honours were paid to him.—Second Part. There was an ancient Emperor, named Hien-Teh, who had a brother named Laou-Koon; the latter was sent to the frontier of Tartary to command the troops there. The city in which Laou-Koon was living was threatened by the Tartars, and there being an insufficient force in the city the commander-in-chief was embarrassed and consulted his daughter and a brave general of his forces. It was resolved to send the daughter and the general on a mission to Hien-Teh, to request him to send speedily a reinforcement. They both left the city and were attacked by the Tartars; the brave General was slain, but the lady pursued her way alone. After travelling some distance the lady's progress was arrested by a furious tiger, but by her intrepid conduct she destroyed the ferocious animal. Immediately thereafter she was rudely accosted by a young huntsman, who complained that she had spoiled his sport, and that he pursued the tiger for some distance through the forest. After a short time the huntsman and the lady became friendly, and having told her companion the mission on which she was employed, they pledged their loves and departed. On reaching the Emperor, the daughter of Laou-Koon told her uncle of the state of affairs on the frontier; His Majesty walked into the garden of the palace to contemplate measures for the assistance of his brother. Whilst wrapped in thought, His Majesty was alarmed at the appearance of a savage bear, which entered the garden; but ere his fright was over a brave young officer of the guard, named Mar-Gwan, slew the bear. The Emperor, delighted at the prowess of his attendant, ennobled him, and directed a Chop to be placed on a palace assigned to the young officer, which set forth that he was 'the greatest general in the world.' Sometime afterwards the huntsman passed the palace; he read the inscription and with a huge stone destroyed it. The huntsman's father, being apprehensive of the displeasure of the Emperor, took his son to his Majesty to be punished as he deserved. The son claimed to be heard; his request was granted; he challenged Mar-Gwan to determine by the sword whether he was entitled to the proud title conferred upon him by the Emperor. A combat took place, and Mar-Gwan was slain. Finding that a braver than the brave slayer of the bear was to be found in his kingdom, the Emperor resolved to send him to his brother, to aid in subduing the Tartars. The new General succeeded so effectually by his reputed valour that the Tartars sent a Princess of great beauty to entreat him to accept peace, to which he assented and demanded the beautiful Princess as his bride. The piece concludes with the marriage of the brave General to the Tartar Princess, and also to the niece of the Emperor of China.—The dresses are entirely new and of the most gorgeous description. Price of admission: Box, 1 dollar; Pit, half-dollar. Doors open at 7 o'clock P.M. and the performances to commence at 8 o'clock precisely. During the day from 12 to 6 o'clock P.M. Tickets may be obtained from Messrs. Seang and Sookow in Beach Street. Pinang, July 5th, 1853."

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